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A
FRENCH GRAMMAR;
OR,
PLAIN INSTRUCTIONS
FOR THE
LEARNING OF FRENCH.

In a Series of Letters.

BY
WILLIAM COBBETT.

Eleventh Edition.

REVISED, WITH ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS,

By JAMES PAUL COBBETT.

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1861.

EDITOR'S PREFACE.

No Grammar can pretend to teach us every thing in a language; and this may be said of the present work, as of every other. Yet Cobbett's *French Grammar*, like his *English Grammar*, while affording the ordinary means of a Manual for the Teacher, may be said to give an insight to the language, and, consequently, an encouragement for the Student to persevere, which are to be had from no other publication.

Those who are without a Teacher, and depending on their own industry unaided, will meet with nothing answering their purpose like this work; and the best evidence of its merits, in explaining the principles and the main difficulties of the French language, is to be seen in the fact, that the Editors of some established books for teaching French are found to adopt Cobbett's mode of clearing up those things which are the most troublesome to comprehend.

In revising this, the *Eleventh Edition*, my chief business has been that of correcting certain inaccuracies, without, however, in any way altering the Author's arrangement of the several matters, or his manner of treating them. Here and there it appeared useful to add a further illustration. But such additions will all be seen separate from the original text, within brackets, thus, [], and generally with the word *Note* prefixed to them.

J. P. C.

September, 1861.

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hardly possible to imagine; and these will be by no means diminished by the reflection, that we owe them to our own want of attention and industry.

5. Though many of the French books are translated into English, the far greater part are not; and in every branch of knowledge, great indeed is the number of those books which it may be useful to read. But were there only the pain arising from the want of a knowledge of French, when we fall into a company where we hear one of our own nation conversing with a Frenchman, this alone ought to be more than sufficient to urge a young person on to the study. I remember a young lady, in Long Island, who had been out on a visit to a house where one of the company happened to be a French lady who could not speak English, and where a young American lady had been interpreter between this foreigner and the rest of the company; and I shall never forget the manner in which the first-mentioned young lady expressed the sense of her humiliation: "I never before," said she, "in all my life, felt *envy*; but there was Miss —, first turning to the right and then to the left, and at each turn changing her language; and there sat I like a post, feeling myself more her inferior than I can describe."

6. It is really thus. This talent gives, in such cases, not only an air of superiority, but also a reasonable and just claim to real superiority, because it must be manifest to every one, that it is the effect of attention and of industry as well as of good natural capacity of mind. It is not a thing like dancing or singing, perfection in the former of which is most likely to arise from an accidental pliancy of the limbs, and in the latter, from an organization of the throat and lungs, not less acci-

dental; it is not a thing of this sort, but a thing, the possession of which necessarily implies considerable powers of mind, and a meritorious application of those powers. Besides these considerations, there is this, that by learning French *well* you will really become more thoroughly acquainted with your own language. If DR. JOHNSON had known the French language, he could have scarcely committed any of those numerous blunders (relating to words from the French) which are contained in his Dictionary, and of which I will here give you a specimen. He has this passage: "RABBET: "a joint made by *paring* two pieces of wood, so that "they wrap over one another." Then, the verb he has thus: "To RABBET: to *pare down* two pieces of wood "so as to fit one another." The Doctor meant "to *make* them fit one another." But to our point: the Doctor says, that TO RABBET comes from the French verb RABBATRE, which means to *bate* or *abate*, to *bring down*. So, says the Doctor, *to rabbet* comes from *rabbatre*; for the wood is *brought down* by the carpenter's tool! What! Doctor? to *bate*, *abate*, the wood! This is far-fetched indeed. Now, if the Doctor had known French only tolerably well, he would have known that RABOT is a carpenter's *plane*; that *raboter* is to *plane* wood with a carpenter's plane; and that boards fitted together by means of the plane, and not by means of the saw, the chisel, or other tools, are boards *rabotés*, or, in English, *raboted*. How plain is all this! And how clear it is that we have here got a piece of nonsense in our language, because DR. JOHNSON did not know French.

7. Having now spoken of the motives to the learning of French, I shall, in the next Letter, speak of the *way*

to go to work, and how to proceed, in order to accomplish the object. Before, however, I proceed further, let me explain to you the meaning of the numerical figures which I have used here from 1 to 7. Each of the portions of writing, distinguished by these figures respectively, is called a *paragraph*; and as you, in the course of the Letters that I am addressing to you, will find yourself frequently directed to look at parts of them, other than the part which you are then reading, you will more quickly find the thing which you want, by being referred to the *paragraph*, than you would if you were referred to the *page*.

8. The hope which I entertain of seeing you write, and of hearing you speak French correctly; is, I am sure, equalled by the desire which you have not to disappoint that hope. My dear little son, I beg you to remember, that to succeed in an undertaking like this requires great assiduity and perseverance; but remember also, that nothing is justly gained without labour of some sort or other; and bear constantly in mind, that, in proportion to your increase in knowledge and talent, will be the increase of the satisfaction of your affectionate father,

WILLIAM COBBETT.

LETTER II.

ON THE WAY OF GOING TO WORK AND OF PROCEEDING
IN THE LEARNING OF FRENCH.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

9. It is not sufficient that the thing we seek to gain is useful in its nature; nor is it sufficient that, in addition to this, we are assiduous and persevering in the pursuit of it. We must go the right way to work, set out and go on in the right path; or our labour, if not wholly lost, will be in great part, at least, spent in vain.

10. Parents innumerable well know that young people of good capacity frequently spend year after year in what is called *learning French*, and that at the end of the time they really know very little of the matter. Out of a thousand of those who are usually at the schools denominated "*French Scholars*," there are perhaps not twenty who ever become able to write a letter or to hold a conversation in French. How did it happen, then, that I, who had every disadvantage to make head against; who began to study French in the woods of North America in 1791; who crossed the Atlantic Ocean twice between that year and 1793; how did it happen that I, who had never had a master to assist me but one single month in 1792, should, in 1793, write and publish, in the French language, a Grammar for the teaching of French people English; which Grammar, first published at Philadelphia, found its way to France, and has long been, for the purpose

for which it was intended, in general use throughout all the countries of Europe?

11. True, I was very assiduous, very persevering (as I trust you will be), and I had also good natural capacity; but my firm belief is, that in these respects I did not exceed any one of thousands upon thousands, who, after years of expense, to their parents and of torment to themselves, give up the pursuit in disgust, from perceiving that they have really learnt nothing that is worthy of being called French. Nor is this result at all surprising when we come to look into the books called "*French Grammars*," where we find such a mass of confusion, that the wonder is, not that so few persons learn French, but that it is ever learned by any one at all.

12. I found it necessary to make a sort of Grammar for myself; to write down the principles and rules as I went on; to pick my way along by means of the *Dictionary*; to get over the difficulties by mere dint of labour. When I afterwards came to teach the English language to French people in Philadelphia, I found that none of the Grammars then to be had were of much use to me. I found them so defective, that I wrote down instructions and gave them to my scholars in manuscript. At the end of a few months this became too troublesome, and these manuscript instructions assumed the shape of a *Grammar* in print, the copyright of which I sold to Thomas Bradford, a bookseller of Philadelphia; for a hundred dollars, or twenty-two pounds eleven shillings and sixpence; which Grammar, under the title of *Maître d'Anglais*, is, as I have just observed, now in general use all over Europe.

13. The great fault of all the French Grammars that

I have met with is that which, as Mr. Tull tells us, Lord Bacon found in the books on farming and gardening; namely, that they contain no *principles*; or, in other words, that they give us *no reasons* for our doing that which they tell us we must do. Indeed, these Grammars are, as far as my observation has gone, little more than masses of *rules*, of *vocabularies*, and of *tables*; things heaped together, apparently for the express purpose of loading the memory and of creating disgust. These Grammars take the scholar into the subject without any preparation; they give him no clear description or account of the thing which he is going to learn; their manner of going from one topic to another is so abrupt that all is unconnected in the mind of the scholar; they seldom or ever give him any *reason* for anything that he is instructed to do; they never explain to him that which he does not understand by that which he does understand; and, in short, they are of very little use to either master or scholar.

14. In the Grammar which I am now writing for you, I shall endeavour to make the undertaking as little wearisome as possible. But, even here, I should observe to you, that a foreign language is a thing not to be learned without labour, and a great deal of labour too. It is a valuable acquisition, and there must be value given for it. It is a thing to be purchased only with labour, and the greater part of that labour must be performed by the scholar.

15. I have to perform the double task of teaching you *Grammar* and of teaching you French. If you knew your own language grammatically, the undertaking would be much easier for me and much easier for you; but let it be remembered, that in proportion

to the greatness of the difficulty is the merit which justice awards to success. I have adopted the epistolary form, that is, I write in the form of *Letters*, for the sake of *plainness*, and, at the same time, for the sake of obtaining and securing your *attention*. We are naturally more attentive to that which is addressed to *us* than we are to that which reaches our ear or our eyes as mere unpointed observation. You do not yet know what it is that grammarians call *impersonal verbs*; but in giving instructions, the impersonal mode of speaking must be less forcible as well as less clear than the personal. "*You must take care,*" is a very different thing from "*Care must be taken;*" or it has, at any rate, a very different effect upon the reader.

16. The manner in which I propose to proceed in the teaching of you is this: First, I shall, in Letter III., explain to you what Grammar is, what is the meaning of the word. I shall then, in Letter IV., teach you what are the different parts of speech or sorts of words. I shall treat of the nature and use of each of these sorts of words or parts of speech; and at every stage I shall show you, in the plainest manner that I am able, the difference between your own language and the French language; for this it is that you want to learn; to be able to say in the latter that which you are able to say in the former. That part of Grammar which distinguishes one part of speech from another, which treats of the relationship of words, and which shows how, and under what circumstances, and for what purposes they change their form; this part of Grammar is called ETYMOLOGY. When, therefore, I shall, in Letters from V. to XII. inclusive, have gone through the Etymology of all the parts of speech,

taking care to keep constantly before you the difference between the French and English languages, I shall, in Letter XIII., give you some *Exercises*, in order to fix firmly in your memory the nature and properties of each of the parts of speech. I shall next go to the *Syntax*, or the putting of words into sentences. But before I do this, I shall stop you a little, to learn the *Genders of Nouns*, and the *Conjugations of Verbs*. To introduce this great mass of matter at an earlier period would cause such great interruptions, that your study of Etymology would be broken into parcels, separated by chasms much too wide. Yet this mass of matter must not be passed over; it must be encountered and mastered before you proceed to the *Syntax*. This matter will be the subject of Letter XIV.; and then, from Letter XV. to Letter XXVIII., both inclusive, I shall give you the *Syntax*; or, as I described it before, that part of Grammar which teaches us how to put words into sentences. Here also I shall take the parts of speech one by one, from the Article to the Conjunction; and at the end of my observations and rules relative to each, I shall give you an EXERCISE; that is to say, a list of sentences, each of which will contain some word, or words, bringing into practice the rules and instructions just given you. These Exercises will consist of English sentences to be put into French; for as to putting French into English, you will do that pretty well by the time that you get to Letter XIII. To put the English into French will be no easy matter; but, then, I shall lead you along so gradually, the sentences will be so short and so simple at first, and from the first Exercise to the twentieth (for there will be twenty), I shall make the previous one so effectually

smooth the way to its successor, that I hope you will find no difficulties which steady application will not speedily overcome. In the framing of these Exercises I have not put *part of the French under the English*, because experience has taught me that the best way is to give the English only, and let the scholar put the whole of the French as well as he can. I still persist in the same opinion, and pursue the same method in this new edition. But as I have now attained my aim with regard to yourself, I comply with the wish of several of my other readers, by publishing at the same time a complete Book of Exercises with a Key, and put the English under the French, for the use of those who, less industrious than yourself, do not relish the trouble of looking for every word in the Dictionary. I shall avoid NOTES and every other thing calculated to draw off, or to enfeeble your attention. I shall not tease you with EXCEPTIONS beyond what *utility* demands. I shall not call you off from a rule to read a *note* of half a page on exceptions relating to words which you might perhaps never see in use four times in your life. I shall leave these things to those persons who are fond of curiosities, and shall be content to assist you in the acquiring of that which is *useful*. I shall, in the giving of my instructions, make use of the *plainest* language; I shall endeavour to express myself in the clearest manner, and shall avoid everything which shall appear to me likely to bewilder you or to make you weary. In short, I shall talk to you in the most familiar manner; I shall give you *reasons* for doing that which I tell you ought to be done. I shall write you Letters that I hope you would not think very dull, though they were formed into a book merely to read through.

17. But there is the *speaking of French*. It is something, and a great deal too, to be able to *read* French; it is more to be able to *translate it* into English; it is still more to be able to *translate English into French*; but there is still the *speaking of French*, which is, as to this matter, the great, general, practical, and desired talent. Mind, however, that in the acquiring of this talent, this great accomplishment, you are got full *nine-tenths* of the way, when you have learned to translate (upon paper) English into French. I mean, of course, to translate *well*, and with facility. When you have carried your acquisition thus far, there remains nothing but the *sound*, and it is quite surprising how quickly the *ear* and the *tongue* do their part of the business. When, however, we reflect, the reasons are plain enough. It is *sound* that is to be acquired; and where we, take the day through, can possibly *write* one word, we hear and utter thousands. Still, to learn the sound, you must *hear* it. To acquire a proper pronunciation of French (or of any foreign language) is absolutely impossible without practice; without hearing others speak, and without speaking to those who are able to correct you when you pronounce badly. *Sounds* admit not of being described *upon paper*. I shall, under the head of PROSODY, in Letter III., prove to you that it is impossible for any human being to give written rules that can be of any use in teaching you how to pronounce French words. But though, in order to learn to speak French, you must have the assistance of a *teacher*, or must live among, or be a good deal among, those who speak that language, till, as I said before, the task is *nine-tenths* performed, when you have acquired all that the Grammar will teach you. But it is not necessary

for you to go through the Grammar before you *begin to learn to pronounce*; that is to say, if you have a teacher, or any one to instruct you in *reading*. You may, after you have got well into the Grammar, be learning to pronounce words at the same time that you are learning the principles of the language. How you are to proceed in doing this, what you are to read, and other particulars relative to this matter, you will find mentioned in Letter III.

18. The general error of those who attempt to learn French is, that the moment they have begun to study, they want to get to *reading* French books, to translating and to speaking. And this is very natural, because it seems like having actually got possession of part of the thing so anxiously sought after. But this is going too fast: it is haste, but not speed. The best way is to go patiently through the Grammar, as far as the end of Letter XIII., before you attempt to *read* or to *pronounce*, even if you have a teacher. Your manner of proceeding ought to be this: read Letter III. ten times over, and then write it twice over. Go on thus to the end of Letter XIII. By the time that you have advanced thus far, which will be in about a month from the time that you begin, you will find that you have learned a great deal. You will begin to see your way through that, which, at the outset, appeared to be utterly impenetrable. You will, therefore, have courage to proceed with the remaining Letters in the same way, reading ten times and writing down twice. But here you will have *Exercises*. These, being merely English sentences for you to translate, need not be read till you come to translate them. When you have read ten times and copied twice the Letter, for instance, on the

Syntax of Articles, you will translate the Exercises in that Letter. Thus you will proceed to the end. Particular instructions relative to the manner of going on in translating you will find in Letter XIV., just before you begin this part of your labours.

19. After you have gone through the whole of the rules and instructions, and have translated the whole of the Exercises, and have done this well, you will, of course, know how to *write French* tolerably well. Very easy will it be to learn to speak after this. But if you, too impatient to go thoroughly into the subjects of your Grammar, hasten on to reading and to speaking without knowing any thing of the principles of the language, you will, in all probability, never speak French much better than an English footman, or lady's maid, who has been for a while in France. The first and the main thing is the Grammar; that well learned, the rest is easy; but that imperfectly learned, the remainder of your way is full of difficulty, and you never arrive at any thing approaching towards perfection. There are persons enough able to utter, or to put upon paper, sentences of broken French; to ask people how they do, to talk of the weather, to call for victuals and drink; but this is not being a *French Scholar*; and I hope that nothing short of meriting this appellation will satisfy you. I shall slur nothing over. I know what were the difficulties the most troublesome to me. I remember the parts of the Grammar which were to me the most abstruse, and which it cost me the most time to be able to understand. These parts, therefore, I shall take particular pains to make plain and easy to you. In short, on my part, no effort shall be wanting; and let me hope that none will be wanting on yours.



LETTER III.

OF LANGUAGE AND OF GRAMMAR GENERALLY, AND OF THE
DIFFERENT BRANCHES, OR DIVISIONS, OF GRAMMAR.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

20. In pursuance of what I have said in paragraph 15, I am now about to explain to you what Language and Grammar are in a general sense.

21. *Language* is a French word as well as an English one. We take it, like a great many other of our words, from the French. *Langue*, in French, means *tongue*; and *Language* means, if fully stated, the things belonging to the tongue, or the things about which the tongue is employed, which things are *words*.

22. *Grammar* is a science which teaches us how to *make use of words in a proper manner*; for, without some principle, or rule, in the using of words, we should have no standard whereby to ascertain their meaning. The main principles of Grammar apply to all languages alike; and this you will, in the next Letter, see fully illustrated in my account of the different *Parts of Speech*, or *Sorts of Words*.

23. But, before I enter on this matter, I must speak of the different *Branches*, or *Divisions*, of Grammar; for we must approach our subject by degrees and in a regular manner, and clearly understand what we are talking about, or we go on in vain. Grammar is usually divided into four *Branches*, which are thus named: *Orthography*, *Prosody*, *Etymology*, and *Syntax*.

24. ORTHOGRAPHY means *spelling* or *word-*

making; and the rules relating to it merely teach us what letters different words are to be composed of. It divides the letters into *Vowels* and *Consonants*. This is so very simple a matter, that it will be only necessary to add, under this head, a few remarks as to the difference between the English *Alphabet* (or set of letters) and that of the French. The French alphabet has no K and no W. It has all the rest of our letters; and it has none that our alphabet has not. But though there be no K and no W used in the French language, the French use these letters when they have to write the *proper names* of persons or places which contain these letters; as *Kingston*, or *Winchester*; because, if they were to put any other letter, or letters, in lieu of the K and W, they, in fact, would not be understood as speaking of the same places. Nevertheless, they do take this liberty in certain cases; for they call Warsaw *Varsovie*. They have, then, *twenty-four* letters in their alphabet. They are written and printed in the same form that ours are.

A. a.	I. i.	R. r.
B. b.	J. j.	S. s.
C. c.	L. l.	T. t.
D. d.	M. m.	U. u.
E. e.	N. n.	V. v.
F. f.	O. o.	X. x.
G. g.	P. p.	Y. y.
H. h.	Q. q.	Z. z.

Of these the *a, e, i, o* and *u* are *Vowels*, and also the *y*, which the French call the *y* Grec, that is to say, *Greek*. The other letters are, as with us, *consonants*. The letters are written and printed like ours, except in the case of the *c*, which has sometimes what they call a *cédille* to it, thus, *ç*; and then it is sounded like an

English &c. As to the spelling of *words properly*, or putting the *right letters* into them, there can be no rule given. It is a thing to be acquired by practice only. In case of words which are derived from other words, the right spelling of the former will arise from a knowledge of the latter: thus, in our language, *hairy* naturally enough comes from *hair*; but, what *reason* can be given why *hair* should not be spelled *hare*, instead of *hair*? The best, the shortest, and indeed the only way of learning to spell all the words of a language correctly, is to write them many times over. Nothing fixes words in the mind like putting them upon paper. The eye is a much better remembrancer than the ear, and the hand is a still better than the eye. For this reason it is that I always recommend a great deal of writing. But, before I quit this head, I must notice the *stops* (or *points*), the *marks* and the *accents*; for these really make part of language as much as *letters* do. Some of those which I am going to give an account of here are used in both languages; but there are some of them which you will find are used in French and not in English.

POINTS. These are four in number: the comma (,), *la virgule*; the semicolon (;), *le point et la virgule*; the colon (:), *deux points*; the full point (.), *le point*.

MARKS. The mark of *interrogation* (?); that of *admiration* (!); that of *parenthesis* (); that of *quotation* ("). All the other marks, such as * † ‡ § || ¶, are merely used for the purpose of directing the eye of the reader to some *note*, or other matter to be referred to by direction of the writer.

The foregoing are common to both languages. Those which follow are not used in English, except the *hyphen* and the *elision*; and these are not used by us for purposes at all resembling those for which they are, in numerous cases, used by the French.

ACCENTS AND MARKS peculiar to the French. The *hyphen* (-), as in *vient-il?* Is he coming? The *elision* ('), as in *c'* in *c'est lui*, and in thousands of instances. The cedilla, or *cédille*, I have mentioned before. It is the tail to the *c*, thus (*ç*). The *diæresis* (¨), called *tréma*, in French; it serves to part two vowels, which, joined together, would form a *diphthong*. Then there are the acute accent (´), the grave (`) and the circumflex accents (^). These last are things of great importance; for *des* and *dès* are different words; so are *a* and *à*, *la* and *là*, *ou* and *où*, *du* and *dû*. These accents, therefore, must be attended to very carefully.

MUTE LETTERS. The *e* is called *mute* in some cases, and so is the *h*: that is to say, when they are *not sounded* in speaking the words of which they make a part.

CAPITAL LETTERS. These are used at the *beginning of every sentence*, set off by a *full-point*; and at the beginning of all *proper names*. In some other cases also, according to the taste of the writer. There is no law of grammar regulating this matter. Custom does a good deal, and that prescribes the use of capitals in writing the names of the days of the week and the names of the months, and in many other cases.

25. PROSODY means neither more nor less than

what is expressed by the more common and better understood word PRONUNCIATION; that is to say, the using of the proper *sound* and the employing of the due *length of time* in the uttering of syllables and words. To lay down principles, or rules, in writing, relative to pronunciation, seems to be a thing absurd upon the very face of it; because no one letter, no combination of letters, has any *fixed* sound or measure; but varies, in both respects, with a great variety of circumstances. The *sounds* which some grammarians attempt to describe as being those of the several letters of the French alphabet, are, in fact, by no means perfect, and are only the sounds in *certain cases*. In other cases they are different. Indeed, it is impossible to *write rules* that can be of any real use, relative to the sound of letters. No man can describe, by writing, the different sounds of our *th*; and when you are told that the word *Français* is to be pronounced *Fraunsey*, or nearly so, of what *use* is it to write you down the sounds of the *a*, the *i*, and the *s*? When you are told, that the word *parleraient* is to be pronounced *parlercy*, or as nearly as possible to that, what *use* can there be in giving you the sounds of the *a*, the *i*, the *e*, the *u*, and the *t*? Again, *perdreux* is pronounced *peardro*. It is, therefore, worse than a waste of time to attempt to give *written rules* relative to the pronunciation of individual letters; because such an attempt, while it cannot assist the learner, may, and indeed must, tend to mislead him. Nor has the *same combination* of letters the *same sound* in all cases. The variances, in this respect, are numerous. There are nearly a thousand words in the French language, which are very nearly the *same in sound*, but *different in their letters*. There are many words, each of which may

mean different things; and some of them have *one sound* in one sense, and *another sound* in another sense. In short, to *speak* French in a manner at all resembling that of French people, or, indeed, in a manner to be understood by them, you must learn from the mouth of some one or more who can speak the language. In default of other assistance, *there must be a teacher for this purpose*. To understand what you read in French, and, of course, to translate from French into English; to write French words, and to put them properly into sentences, and, of course, to translate from English into French: these you may be able to do without a *teacher*, though not nearly so speedily as with one. But to *speak*, free from ludicrous impropriety, without the assistance of the speaking of others, is absolutely impossible. You ought never, until you have been taught to pronounce, or except there be a teacher at your elbow, to attempt to pronounce a French word; for, having pronounced it viciously four or five times, it is hard to get rid of the bad habit. To speak French any thing like well, you must be taught to open the mouth much wider than we, English, generally, or, indeed, ever do. The French say of us, that we *bite* our words; that is to say, that we speak with our upper and lower teeth nearly close to each other. If we do not break ourselves of this, we never speak French even tolerably well. The harshness of our language leads us, in speaking, to *slide over* great numbers of our words, giving to each only a part, and sometimes a very small part, of its full pronunciation. This habit we naturally fall into in reading, and in speaking French, unless we be, at the outset, kept constantly on our guard against it; and this *sliding over* is what the French language

will by no means bear. The result of these remarks is, that, though, as far as the understanding of what we read, in French, and as far as the writing of French, go, much may be done without any other assistance than that of books; but that, as to speaking with any degree of propriety, it never can be acquired without the aid of the speaking of others. When, however, we come to speak, then we find all the advantages of what we have learned from the Grammar; for then we know *what words* to use and *how to place* them; which, without the study of Grammar, we can never know. This constitutes the difference between the scholar and his footman, both being of the same age, and both having the same opportunities of hearing French spoken. But, if the scholar have begun by pronouncing erroneously; if he have gone on, for even a little while, giving his English sounds to French words, it is ten to one that the footman, though he know not his letters, will, all his life time, pronounce better than the scholar; because he will never have been *mised*. The *age* at which we begin to pronounce, is not of so much importance as is *beginning properly*, whenever we do begin. Some imagine that we can never speak French well unless we begin when *very young*. This is not the fact; I was *twenty-six* years old when I began to speak French; and, in *less than six months*, French people used to take me for a Frenchman. To be sure, they are apt to stretch a point or two on the side of civility; but I really did speak the language tolerably well at the end of less than six months; and I ascribed this to my not having attempted to *pronounce* until I had competent assistance. In paragraph 17, I told you that I should, in this place, give you some instructions how to proceed in learning

to *read* French. There will be no necessity for my giving you any matter merely to read, and to learn to pronounce from; for what can be so good for this purpose as the lists of *Articles* and of the words of other parts of speech, which words will necessarily be inserted in lists, or tables, of this Grammar? Your first lesson in reading would be the *Articles* in Letter V. Your next, the *Pronouns* in Letter VII. The several classes of Pronouns would give you so many *lessons in reading*; and, observe, these words are short, and they occur in almost every sentence. You would next read, many times over, the verbs *avoir* and *être*. You would then read the other verbs. Then the lists of Prepositions and Conjunctions, in Letters XI. and XII. Then come back to the Nouns and Adjectives in Letters VI. and VIII. And after this there will be, at the end of the Grammar, all the twenty Exercises translated into French; and I shall take care that these Exercises contain one, at least, of each class of words of difficult pronunciation.

26. ETYMOLOGY means the *pedigree* or *relationship* of words. The word *write*, for instance, expresses an action which we perform with our hands; but, in some cases we have to say *wrote*, in others *written*, in others *writing*. Yet it is always the *same action* that is expressed; and therefore the words, though different as to the letters of which they are composed, spring from the same root and have a relationship to each other. Etymology teaches the principles and rules according to which the spelling of words is to be *varied* or *altered*: it teaches us when we ought to use *write*, when *written*, and so on. You will bear in mind that the general principles of Grammar are the same in both

languages; but as to this business of varying the spelling of the words proceeding from the same root, it is, as you will by-and-by find, much more extensive in French than in English. This word *write*, for instance, is, in one case, *écrire*, but, in others, it becomes *écrits*, *écrit*, *écrivons*, *écrivez*, *écrivent*, *écrivais*, *écrivait*, *écrivions*, *écrivîmes*, *écrivirent*; and takes many other forms. The rules of Etymology teach us when we ought to make use of one of these forms, and when of the other. You must, therefore, see at once, that this Branch of the science is of great importance: and you must also see, that it is impossible to acquire any knowledge of the French language much beyond that which the capacity of a parrot would reach, without that sort of study upon which you are now entering. Etymology you will, in the next Letter, find dividing itself into several distinct parts. I have here aimed at giving you merely a general description of its nature and use.

27. SYNTAX means *sentence-making*. Etymology teaches us how to vary the forms of our words, how to make them agree or correspond with each other; it teaches us, for instance, to say *he writes*, and *I write*, and to avoid saying *he write* and *I writes*. But there remains something more than this to enable us to write or speak properly; because, not only must we use the *proper words*, but we must give to each word its proper *situation*, its proper place in a *sentence* or collection of words. Suppose, for instance, I were to say, "There is a principle in this science, from which we must never depart." There would be a doubt whether it were the *principle* or the *science* that must be adhered to; but place the words thus: "There is, in this science, a principle, "from which we must never depart," and you know that

it is the principle to which we have to adhere. Therefore, even in the use of our own language, the rules of *Syntax* are of great use; but, in the learning of French, they are of indispensable necessity; for, without a tolerably large stock of knowledge with regard to them, we never can arrive at anything approaching to perfection in the language. The words, though the same in meaning, do not follow the same order, in the two languages. For instance: *He has ten white hens.* The French of this is, *Il a dix poules blanches.* That is to say, word for word, *he has ten hens white.* And, bad as this sounds in English, it does not sound worse than *dix blanches poules* would in French. I give you this merely as a specimen, and to explain to you the nature of what is called *Syntax*, for the want of duly studying the principles and rules of which, the French hear so many English speaking broken French, and we hear so many French speaking broken English.

28. I have now spoken to you of Language and of Grammar in general, and described to you the different Branches, or Divisions, of the latter. You will bear in mind, that we have nothing further to do with ORTHOGRAPHY, except that we must always remember what has been said towards the close of paragraph 24. You will also bear in mind, that you are not to attempt to meddle with PROSODY, or *Pronunciation*, unless at the stage, and under the circumstances, already fully mentioned. We have now to enter on the study of *Etymology*, which is, indeed, the most important part of our undertaking. Let me beg of you to proceed *steadily* on: not to be in haste; not to be impatient: and, if you follow this advice, you will soon have reason to be proud of what you have learned.

LETTER IV.

ETYMOLOGY:

THE DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH, OR SORTS OF WORDS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

29. ETYMOLOGY has been described to you in the foregoing Letter. It treats, as you have seen, of the *relationship* of words, of which you have seen an example in paragraph 26. Treating, then, of the relationship of words, it first divides the words into *several distinct sorts*, as we would plants for a garden, before we begin to place them in rows or clumps. You will, by-and-by, see the use of this; but, in the present Letter, I have to describe to you these several different sorts of words, which grammarians call *Parts of Speech*, and which they name thus:

ENGLISH.	FRENCH.
Articles,	<i>Articles,</i>
Nouns,	<i>Noms,</i>
Pronouns,	<i>Pronoms,</i>
Adjectives,	<i>Adjectifs,</i>
Verbs,	<i>Verbes,</i>
Adverbs,	<i>Adverbes,</i>
Prepositions,	<i>Prépositions,</i>
Conjunctions,	<i>Conjonctions,</i>
Interjections.	<i>Interjections.</i>

30. These names are so much alike in both languages that you will be apt to suppose that the languages themselves differ, throughout, very little from each other; but these are words taken from the more ancient into both these modern languages, whence comes

the close resemblance in this particular case. You will observe, that, to whatever Part of Speech any English word belong, the French word which has the same meaning belongs also; it is the *same sort* of word in both languages, just as a tulip is the same sort of flower, whether it grow in a French or in an English garden. Thus the word *tree* is, in French, *arbre*. The word *tree* is a *noun*, and the word *arbre* also.

31. I shall, by-and-by, have to tell you things of this sort; namely, that, in French, you must, in certain cases, place the *pronoun* before the *verb*, and not after it as in English. For instance: *John gives you a pen*. You must write *Jean vous donne une plume*: that is, *John you gives a pen*: and not, *Jean donne vous une plume*. In short, I shall be continually talking to you about *Articles*, *Nouns*, and the rest of these Parts of Speech. My instructions will, indeed, consist of rules relative to *how you ought to write and how you ought to place Articles, Nouns, Pronouns*, and the rest of the sorts of words. It is, therefore, as you will clearly see, necessary that you know, as soon as possible, how to distinguish one sort of words from another. To enable you to do this, or, rather, to open the matter to you, the remaining paragraphs of the present Letter are intended.

32. **ARTICLES.** In English there are but *two*, namely, *the* and *a*. Before a vowel, or an *h* mute, *a* becomes *an*; but it is only another shape for the same word. There being then only *the* and *a*, no further explanation is necessary in order to distinguish *our Articles* from the other Parts of Speech. With the French, however, the matter is not so easy; for though they have only two Articles, *le* and *un*, these, and par-

ticularly the former, frequently change their form; the former unites itself so very oddly with prepositions; and both consist of the same letters of which words of other Parts of Speech consist; so that it is a matter of great importance to distinguish them from those other Parts of Speech. Articles are little words put before other words: as, *the* stick, *a* horse; in French, *le* bâton, *un* cheval.

33. NOUNS. The word *noun* means *name*, and nothing more. Every word that stands for, or that speaks to us of, anything (alive or dead), that has a *substance*, such as we can *see*, is a noun; as *noun*, *tree*, *fire*; whence some grammarians call this sort of words *substantives*. But there are other nouns; as *pride*, *truth*, *conscience*, *thought*, *misery*, *distress*, *pleasure*, *joy*, and the like, which have *no substance*, and therefore *substantive* is an inadequate appellation. Every word that expresses anything that has an *existence* or *being*, is a noun: and more complete than this it is impossible to make our definition.

34. PRONOUNS. This word is composed of two Latin words, which mean *for* and *names*. So that Pronouns *stand for* nouns. Thus *he* is a Pronoun, because we say, *John was ill, but he is now well*. So, also, *which* is a Pronoun, because we say, *the horses which you bought are good*. There are many pronouns and many important rules relating to them; but I am in this place endeavouring merely to give you some idea of what this Part of Speech is.

35. ADJECTIVES. The word Adjective, in its literal sense, means *something added*. In Grammar it means a word added to a noun, in order to express something belonging to it which it is necessary for us to

know. For instance: *send me a BLUE coat*. If I had no Adjective whereby to express the colour, I should be able to say merely that I wanted *a coat*. In French, this phrase would be, *envoyez-moi un habit BLEU*. That is to say, send me a *coat blue*, and not a *blue coat*; and though it would be shockingly bad English to say *coat blue*, it would not be less bad French to say *bleu habit*. You will by-and-by find rules about placing the Adjectives, which are, in some cases, to come before, and in others after, the Nouns; and therefore it is necessary to know, as soon as possible, how to distinguish Adjectives from other words. Words of this sort express the *qualities* of Nouns, as *good*, *bad*, *indifferent*; their appearances, as *handsome*, *ugly*; their dimensions, as *long*, *short*, *shallow*, *deep*, *high*, *low*; their colours, and various other circumstances belonging to them. If you take time to compare them with Nouns, you will soon discover the difference; for you will find that the Adjectives speak of what has no *existence of itself*. For instance, *great*. This is *nothing* of itself; but put it before the Noun *man*, *joy*, or the like, and it has sense in it.

36. VERBS express all the different *actions* and *movements* of all creatures or things, whether alive or dead. To *walk*, to *speak*, to *grow*, to *moulder*, to *work*, and the like. In these cases there is *movement*, either visible or understood. To *love*, to *hate*, to *think*, to *remember*, though the *movement* is not so readily perceived, we, on reflection, discover movements of the heart and mind. But to *sit*, to *sleep*, to *rot*, are also *verbs*; for they describe *states of being*, states in which things *are*; and, therefore, they are *verbs*. Verbs are, then, words, the use of which is to express the actions,

the movements, and *the state or manner of being* of all creatures or things, whether animate or inanimate. In paragraph 31, I gave you an instance of the necessity of being able to distinguish one part of speech from another. I said that, I should have to instruct you to put, in certain cases, the *pronoun* before the *verb*, and not after it, as in English. It was this: *Jean VOUS DONNE une plume.* That is, word for word, *John YOU GIVES a pen.* *Vous* is the pronoun and *donne* the verb. But when I lay down a rule like this, it can be of no use to you, unless you know what words are pronouns and what words are verbs. You see, therefore, how necessary it is to know how to distinguish one part of speech from another, and each part from all the rest.

37. ADVERBS are so called because they are *added to verbs*; but this is not an adequate description of their use; for they are as frequently otherwise employed. They are, indeed, added to verbs, as, he writes *neatly.* *Writes* is the verb, and *neatly* the adverb. But there are many adverbs which are not added to verbs; but that express, or point out, *time, place, and degree.* Their business is to express some circumstance in addition to all that is expressed by the Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs; as, *He writes a VERY good hand.* We, without the Adverb *very*, know that he *writes*, and that he writes *a good* hand: but the adverb is necessary to inform us, that this goodness is in a high degree.

38. PREPOSITIONS are so called because their *position* is generally *before*, or *previous* to, that of the Nouns to which they apply. They are the little words *in, to, for, from, of, by, with*, and several others. The French words, which answer to these and the rest of our Prepositions, are, you will bear in mind, Preposi-

tions in that language also. This is a class of words, few in number, and soon distinguished from all others.

39. CONJUNCTIONS have this name given them, because they *conjoin*, or *join together*, words, or parts of sentences; as, *Richard AND William write*; BUT *they do not ride*. Thus you see the word *and* joins together Richard and William, and by the means of this *junction*, makes the word *write* apply to them both. The word BUT connects the two parts of the sentence: and thus does every part of the sentence apply to the two Nouns that are the subject of it.

40. INTERJECTIONS. This name arises from two Latin words, which mean *something thrown between*. The Interjections are *Oh! Ah! Alas! Poh!* and some others, which are, indeed, not *words*; they make no part of what we call *language*; they are mere *sounds*, and ought not to be reckoned a *Part of Speech* any more than *hissing, hooting, crying, coughing, or sneezing*, ought to be reckoned such. The French say, for instance, *Bah!* where we say *Poh!* It is all mere *noise*, wholly unworthy of our attention, and has been mentioned by me only for the purpose of expressing my disapprobation of the conduct of those who have considered it a *Part of Speech*.

41. Even the most attentive study of the contents of this Letter will not enable you to know, in all cases, what Part of Speech a word belongs to. To obtain this knowledge in perfection is a work of time, steady pursuit, and patience. Your understanding of what you have now read will, at first, be *confused*; and you will, at times, be ready to think that you shall *never succeed* in your object. But you must take heart, and remember what I said before, that *nothing valuable* can be

honourably gained without *labour* of some sort or other. You should also bear in mind, that in proportion to the greatness of the difficulty of your undertaking is the smallness of the number of those who overcome it. In war the maxim is, the greater the danger the greater the glory; in learning, it is according to the labour that the meed is apportioned.

42. Let me, before I put an end to this Letter, give you an instance of a sentence, in which you will find words belonging to all the Parts of Speech; thus, *the brown horse and the gray mare which ran swiftly in the field.* The word *the* is an Article; *horse*, *mare*, and *field*, are Nouns; *which* is a Pronoun; *ran* is a Verb; *swiftly* is an Adverb; *in* is a Preposition; *and* is a Conjunction. In order to *try yourself* a little, it is a very good way to take any sentence in a book, and to write down on a piece of paper, against each word, the part of Speech which *you think* it belongs to: then look for the words, one by one, in the Dictionary. You find an *a* against Articles; *s* against Nouns, because they are also called Substantives; *adj.* against Adjectives; *pro.* against Pronouns; *v. a.* against Verbs Active; *v. n.* against Verbs Neuter; *adv.* against Adverbs; *prep.* against Prepositions; and *con.* against Conjunctions. These marks are the same in the French as in the English Dictionary, except that in the case of Nouns, or Substantives, you will, in the French, find, besides the *s*, an *m* or an *f*; that is to say, *masculine* or *feminine*; because, as you will find by-and-by, every French Noun is either masculine or feminine, which makes one of the great differences between that language and ours.

43. One thing more relative to the *Parts of Speech* you ought here to be informed of; namely, that what

one would call the *same word* often belongs to *two* Parts of Speech. For instance, *I RECORD a deed*. Here *record* is a Verb; but in, *I put the deed upon RĒCORD*, the same word is a Noun. In truth, however, it is not the same *word*: it is the same assemblage of letters, but not the same word; nor, indeed, has it the same sound. In French *le* is sometimes an Article, and at others a Pronoun. It is thus with a great number of words in both languages. It is their *meaning*, and not merely the letters of which they are composed, that determines the Part of Speech to which they belong.

LETTER V.

ETYMOLOGY OF ARTICLES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

44. Before you enter on this Letter, look again at paragraph 32. You there see, that, in our language, we have only two articles, *a* and *the*. The first sometimes, as you saw, becomes *an*; but, it is still the same word, the difference in the spelling being merely for the purpose of harmony of sound. This is called the *indefinite* article, because a noun, when it has this article prefixed to it, only serves to point out the *kind* of person or thing spoken of, without defining *what* person or *what* thing; as, *A horse is dead*. But, when we say, *THE horse is dead*, we speak of some particular horse known to the person to whom we are speaking. The *the* is, therefore, called the definite article.

45. The use of *our own* articles is so well known to ourselves, that it will be unnecessary to enlarge upon that here: my chief business in this place is to teach you the manner of using the French articles, which are also *two* in number, *un* and *le*, answering to our *a* and *the*; but, as you are now going to see, these two French articles assume many forms, and some of these very different from the forms in which you here see them. The first of them is, as with us, called the *indefinite* article, and the other the *definite*; and they are used, of course, according to the principle stated in paragraph 44.

46. The indefinite article *un* is, then, put before nouns which merely point out the *kind* of the person or thing spoken of; as, *un livre*, a book. But, here we begin to see the difference in the two languages; for

every noun in French is either of the *masculine* or the *feminine* gender, and the article varies in its form, that is to say, in its spelling, to correspond with the gender of the noun to which it is prefixed. *Un* is the masculine, and *une* the feminine, of this indefinite article; so that we must say, *un livre*, a book; but we must say, *une plume*, a pen, because *livre* is masculine and *plume* feminine.

47. This is the only variation of form to which, as an article, this word is liable. But, the same word, or rather the same assemblage of letters, is not always an article. It is sometimes an adjective; that is to say, when it expresses *number*, answering to our *one*; for the French say, *un, deux, trois*, as we say *one, two, three*; and this is the reason why we hear French people say *one man*, and the like, when they should say *a man*. Not having learned English *grammatically*, they confound the article with the adjective. It is the same word, or rather the same assemblage of letters in their language, but it is not the same in ours. Besides this, the *un* is sometimes a *pronoun*, in like manner as our *one* is; as, *neither the ONE nor the other*. In French, *ni l'UN ni l'autre*. But, here is a further variation to agree with the number as well as with the gender of the nouns. If, in the example just given, we are speaking of *livres*, books, which are masculine, we say *ni l'UN ni l'autre*; if of *plumes*, pens, which are feminine, we say *ni l'UNE ni l'autre*; if of parcels of books, we say, *ni les UNS ni les autres*; and if of parcels of pens, *ni les UNES ni les autres*; while, you will observe, we have, in the use of our *one*, no variations of this sort, unless, indeed, that we do sometimes say, good *ones*, bad *ones*, and the like. I have here got out of my subject; for I am not now to talk of adjectives and pronouns; but the

French *un*, which answers to our article *a*, being sometimes an adjective and sometimes a pronoun, I was obliged to mention that circumstance here.

48. Though the paragraph which you have just read anticipates a little; though it does not, strictly speaking, belong to the etymology of *articles*, it may serve to prevent you from confounding this indefinite article with the adjective, or the pronoun composed of the same letters. The 46th paragraph concludes the subject of the *indefinite* article; and now we come to the *definite* article, which, as you have been told, is *le*, answering to our *the*.

49. Our definite article is, in all cases, the *same*. It never changes its form at all. Whatever may be the noun before which it is placed, it is always composed of the same letters. It is always *the*. Whereas the French definite article takes, according to circumstances, all the following different forms: *le, la, l', les, du, des, au, aux*. In the four last forms the word is a *compound*: it is an article *united* with the prepositions *de, of, and à, to*. Thus, *du* means *de le, of the*, in the singular; *des* means *de les, of the*, in the plural; *au* means *à le, to the*, in the singular; and *aux* means *à les, to the*, in the plural. And here you perceive that what is expressed by a single word in one language, requires *two words* in the other. This you will find to be frequently the case.

50. However, this is sufficient about the article at present, because, in order clearly to understand the rules relative to the use of it; in order to understand when one of these forms is to be used, and when the other, you must first learn something about the *branches, genders, numbers, and cases* of nouns, and this you will learn from the next Letter.

LETTER VI.

ETYMOLOGY OF NOUNS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

51. In paragraph 33, I have described *what a Noun is*; that is to say, what are the marks by which you are to distinguish Nouns from words belonging to other Parts of Speech. You must now read that paragraph again, for you are now entering on the *Etymology* of this Part of Speech; and you have seen in paragraph 26 (which you will now read again), that Etymology teaches us the principles and rules according to which we are to *vary* the form or spelling of words.

52. In a Noun there are to be considered the *Branches*, the *Genders*, the *Numbers*, and the *Cases*; and these must all be carefully attended to.

53. THE BRANCHES. Nouns are divided into *Proper* and *Common*. The proper are such as are the names of particular individuals, as, *Richard*, *London*, *England*. The Common are the names of all the individuals of a kind, as, *Man*, *City*, *Country*. There are, indeed, many men named *Richard*, and there is a *London* and an *England* in America; but these names are not applicable to *all* men, *all* cities, and *all* countries. Though many pointers go by the same name, such as *Don*, yet this is not a common Noun, like *pointer*, or *dog*, the first of which is applicable to *all* pointers, and the last applicable to *all* dogs. Such are the two *Branches* of Nouns; and this, simple as it appears, is a matter for you to attend to, because you

will find, by-and-by, that the manner of using the other words which are employed with Nouns, will depend upon whether the Nouns themselves be *proper* or *common*; and this is the case to a much greater extent in French than it is in English. Proper Nouns are always, in all languages, made to begin, whether in manuscript or in print, with a *capital* letter, as in this sentence: RICHARD knows several of the MEN who live in the most of our CITIES, but he knows only THOMAS in that of BRISTOL. We do, indeed, employ capital letters in some other cases, of which I shall say more in another place; but we always employ them at the beginning of *proper* nouns.

54. THE GENDERS. Here we come to that which forms one of the great differences in the two languages. In our language, the Nouns, or names, of *nates* are *masculine*; those of *females* are *feminine*; and those of inanimate things, or of creatures the sex of which we do not know, are *neuter*. Thus, in speaking of a man, we say *he*; of a woman, *she*; of a house, *it*. In speaking of living creatures, the sex of which we do not know, we use the neuter gender; for though we call a *cock* a *he*, and a *hen* a *she*, we call a *fowl* an *it*. In speaking of a *child*, we say *it*; but this is only when we do not know whether the child be a *male* or a *female*. We do, indeed, in a sort of figurative way, sometimes call irrational animals *hes*; for instance, when we are speaking of birds or beasts as a *race*, and when we use the singular number instead of the plural; as, *the lark* sings well; *the horse* is a useful animal; that is to say, *larks* sing well, *horses* are useful animals. Now, if we have in this case to use the pronoun, we very frequently say *he* (the lark) sings well;

he (the horse) is a useful animal. Some few birds and beasts and insects, we, when we speak thus figuratively, call *shes*. But neither being strictly grammatical, there can be no rule about the matter. We generally call the *owl* a *she*! This is all mere accident; and *he* would be as proper; because neither is proper, strictly speaking.

55. How different the French language as to this matter! In French every Noun is of the masculine or of the feminine, whether it be the name of a living creature or not. The names of living creatures that are *males* are, indeed, of the masculine gender, and those that are the names of *females* are of the feminine gender; but the names of all other things are either masculine or feminine. *Panier* (basket), for instance, is masculine; and *table* (table) feminine. This would be nothing, if it were merely *calling* them masculine and feminine. But the *articles*, the *adjectives*, and the *pronouns* must vary their form, or spelling, to *agree* with the genders of the nouns. We say *the* basket, *the* table; but the French say *le* panier, and *la* table. We say, *the round* basket, *the round* table; but they must say, *le panier rond*, and *la table ronde*. We say, speaking of a basket, *it* is round, and we say the same of a table; but they say, speaking of a basket, *il* est rond, and speaking of a table, *elle* est ronde.

56. Thus, you see, it is absolutely necessary to know *what gender* a noun is of before you use it. If I am speaking of *wine*, I must call it *he* (*il*); but if I am speaking of *beer*, I must call it *she* (*elle*). Now, then, *how* are we, when we are about to use a noun, to know whether it be masculine or feminine? How are we to come at this knowledge? In the Dictionary, as I

observed in paragraph 42, you will find against every noun either *s. m.* or *s. f.* The former means Substantive (or Noun) *masculine*, and the latter Substantive (or Noun) *feminine*. And this, after all that Grammarians can do; after all the rules that they can give, is the only sure way of learning (from books) the Gender of the French Nouns. MONSIEUR RESTAUT, in his "*General Principles of French Grammar*," makes the Scholar put this question to the Master: "*How are we to know of what gender nouns are?*" The answer of the master is this: "The nouns before which we can put *le* or *un* are masculine, and the nouns before which we can put *la* or *une* are feminine; as *le* livre, *un* livre; *la* plume, *une* plume." This is very good for those who *already know* the cases which demand those different Articles respectively; but MONSIEUR RESTAUT does not tell others how they are to know it, which was the very thing that was wanted. MONSIEUR RESTAUT's rule for *knowing* the gender of Nouns is excellent for those *who know* the gender of Nouns, and quite useless to everybody else. But MONSIEUR RESTAUT was writing a Grammar of the French language for the use of *French people*, who had, from their infancy, heard the *le* put before some words, and the *la* before others. It is a very different matter when the learner is of another nation.

57. Are there any *rules*, then, by which we English people can know the gender of French nouns? There are; but so numerous are those rules, and so numerous the exceptions, that it is impossible for them to be of any use at all to the learner. The rules are ten or twelve in number; and the exceptions are many hundreds. The way which these rules point out for you

to know the gender of a noun is, by looking at the *termination* or ending of it. Thus, for instance, one rule says, that nouns ending in *ion* are of the *feminine* gender; but there are from twenty to thirty exceptions to this one rule; and while you must say *la nation*, you must say *le scorpion*. There are more than three score different terminations, if you go back to the fourth letter from the end of the word. So that there might be three score rules, and even these must have, in the whole, many scores of exceptions. To show the folly of all attempts to reduce this matter to rule, we have only to know that there are more than a hundred nouns which are masculine in *one sense* and feminine in *another sense*. And, after all this, there come the numerous nouns ending in an *e* mute, or not sounded. Of this description of nouns there are, perhaps, many more than *a thousand*, and there are about as many of them of one gender as of the other. What, then, can MONSIEUR DE LÉVIZAC mean by the following words in his Grammar? “The gender of nouns, in inanimate objects, is generally expressed by their terminations; thus, final *e* mute is the distinctive mark of the *feminine* gender, and every other final letter is the sign of the *masculine*. This would be an excellent rule were it universal, but this is far from being the case.” Far, indeed! For, in the first place, there are *as many* masculines as feminines with a final *e* mute. How, then, can the final *e* mute be the *distinctive mark* of the feminine gender? Then, of the nouns which end in *eur*, *ion*, and in some other letters, the greater part are feminines. How, then, can every final letter other than *e* mute be the *sign* of the masculine gender?

58. After this, MONSIEUR DE LÉVIZAC proceeds to

lay down what he calls "*concise rules*," for ascertaining the gender. These "*concise rules*" occupy *eight pages* of print, and present a mass of perplexity, to unravel which would demand more time than would be required to write down all the nouns in the Dictionary with an article to each, and to get the whole by heart; and after all these eight pages of "*concise rules*," MONSIEUR DE LÉVIZAC is compelled to leave all the nouns in final *e* mute to take their chance! MONSIEUR CHAMBAUD has *twenty-four rules*, each with exceptions, and some with numerous exceptions; and, after all, he also leaves the nouns in final *e* mute nearly to take their chance. MONSIEUR PALAIRET, after giving five rules with their exceptions, comes to his *sixth* rule, which is, that nouns in final *e* mute are feminine, "*except the following*;" and then comes a list of about *five hundred nouns*, and even to these are to be added many which he says he has omitted "*for shortness*." MONSIEUR PORNÏ, after giving *nine rules* with their exceptions, says that the "*surest way* is to refer to the Dictionary;" and yet he has, in a Note, this strange observation: "This advice is not given on a pretence of the *impossibility* of "*reducing the gender of our Nouns to rules*, as a "*certain Grammarian asserts*; but on account that "*there can be no rules drawn on this intricate subject* "*but what must be accompanied with many excep-* "*tions*; and the whole, of course, would, perhaps, prove "*more perplexing to beginners than instructive*." Passing over the *bad English* of MONSIEUR PORNÏ, I agree with him that the attempt to reduce the gender of the French Nouns to rules would be more *perplexing* than *instructive*; and I so well remember that the perplexity which I experienced from reading rules on this subject

gave me such disgust, and was so near driving me away from the study of the language, that I shall take good care not to expose you to the effects of reading such rules.

59. MONSIEUR VORNY calls this an *intricate* subject. It is by no means *intricate*, any more than would be the task of separating the grains of wheat from those of barley when mixed together in a sack. It is a matter of mere labour, with some *memory*, and requires no reflection, no reasoning, as in the case of distinguishing the *Parts of Speech* from each other. The subject is not, therefore, intricate; and though it requires labour, this is rendered wearisome and disgusting only by the vain attempts to subject it to rules.

60. You are not to encounter the whole of this labour *yet*; but I shall now give you some instructions how to proceed to know the *gender of nouns*, which, as you have already been informed, is a thing of indispensable necessity to the learning of French.

61. In the first place, all nouns that are masculine in English are masculine in French, and it is the same with the feminines; that is to say, the names of all *males* are of the first, and the names of all *females* of the last. But if, as is observed in paragraph 54, the Noun relate to a living creature, and do not express the sex, then the Noun, in French, is masculine or feminine, as it may happen. Thus, *corbeau* (raven) is masculine, and *perdreux* (partridge) is feminine; for these do not express the *sex*, but merely the *kind*. When the French Noun expresses the sex, as *coq* (cock), or *poule* (hen), it is masculine or feminine, as in our language. So far the French language follows

the order of nature; but it has no *neuter* gender. It makes everything either a male or a female, as was explained in paragraph 55.

62. To the rule just given, and according to which the names of all males are of the masculine gender, and those of all females of the feminine gender, there are a few seeming exceptions, that I must notice, such as *sentinelle*, a sentinel; *patrouille*, the patrol; *garde*, a guard of soldiers; *majesté*, majesty; *Saint Michel*, the feast of St. Michael. But, in fact, it is *not the men*, but their *office* or *occupation*, and the *feast* of the Saint, that these French words, which are *feminine*, express.

63. I have one more remark to make before I come to my instructions how to proceed to know the genders of other nouns. Some words are of *both genders*; that is to say, they are sometimes of one and sometimes of the other. They, like some words in English, sometimes mean one thing and sometimes another. We, for instance, have *jack*, the name of a *fish*, and *jack*, to *roast* with. The French have *livre*, a *book*, and *livre*, a *pound*; and with them the first of these is masculine, and the other feminine; and, accordingly, we must say, *le livre*, in the first case. and *la livre* in the last. They have many of these words of double meaning; but the genders of these, as well as of all the rest, will soon be learned by the method that I am now going to point out, by telling you what I myself did in order to learn the genders.

64. I made a paper book, in the octavo form, and divided each page into three columns, by lines drawn down the page. Then I took the Dictionary, and wrote down all the Nouns in it. When I had filled the first column I began the next, and proceeded thus

until I had written down all the Nouns in the Dictionary. The Dictionary told me what gender each Noun was of, and I prefixed to it an *Article*, either indefinite or definite, corresponding with that gender. It took me about *ten days* to do this; and I had wasted weeks on the *rules* about genders without being able to make top or tail of the matter. When I had once written *every* Noun with its *Article*, I had done a good deal. I then looked at this book of my own making forty or fifty times over; so that, in a few days, my *eye*, when I was translating from English into French, told me almost instantly whether I was right or wrong as to the gender. If I had had a master to *read* to, and had read my book to him, the *ear*, as well as the *eye*, would have assisted me; but even without such aid I found, in a short time, very little difficulty with regard to the gender, which presents, beyond all comparison, the most laborious task that we have to perform in learning the French language.

65. But, as I observed just now, you are not *yet* to enter on this part of your undertaking. This *practical* part will come by-and-by; and then I shall have again to give you some instructions on the subject. I have here been explaining to you the nature of the *genders*, and showing you how the French language differs from ours in respect to them. I, therefore, now quit the *genders* and go to the *Numbers*.

66. NUMBERS. We may have to speak of persons and things that are collected together; that is to say, when there is more of them than one to be spoken of. The Noun *must*, then, have two *Numbers*, one to be used when we are speaking of a *single* person or thing, and the other when we are speaking of *more*

than one. The Noun has two *Numbers* accordingly; the one called the *singular*, and the other the *plural*. The latter word means *belonging to more*. The singular belongs to *one*, the plural to *more than one*.

67. The next thing to be considered is, how the plural Noun is designated so as to be distinguished from the singular. This is generally done, in English, by adding an *s* to the singular; as *day, days*. And the very same is the general rule in French; as *chien, chiens*. But, in both languages, there are some exceptions to this general rule. The exceptions are not very numerous; and may, with proper industry, be soon pretty well fixed in the mind. In English, when the singular Noun ends in *ch, sh, s*, or *x*, there requires *es* to be added to form the plural, as *church, churches*. A singular ending in *y* changes the *y* into *ies* to form the plural; as *quality, qualities*; but, if a vowel immediately precede the *y*, you only add an *s*; as *day, days*. Singulars ending in *f* generally change the *f* into *ves* to make the plural. Some few Nouns have their plural in *n*; as *oxen*. Some few Nouns have no *singular* number, and some have no *plural*; as *tongs*, and *gold*. Nouns expressing moral qualities and feelings have generally no plural; as *honesty, meekness*. Some few Nouns form their plural by changing several of the letters of which the singular is composed; as *mouse, mice*; *goose, geese*. And a few are the same words in both numbers; as *deer* and *sheep*.

68. Such is the case with regard to our English Nouns; and this is much about the case with the French Nouns. But, let me observe here, that the irregularity in one language is not found, except by mere chance, in the *same word* as in the other language.

There are *Four Rules* for forming the plurals of French Nouns; the first is the general rule; the rest form exceptions to it.

RULE 1. The plural is formed by adding an *s* to the singular; as, *chien*, dog; *chiens*, dogs; *diamant*, diamond; *diamants*, diamonds; *loi*, law; *lois*, laws. This is the *general rule*; but *tout* and *gent* are exceptions, and change the *t* into *s* in the plural, as *tous*, all; *gens*, people.

RULE 2. Nouns ending in *s*, *x*, or *z*, are the same in both numbers; as, *un fils*, a son; *deux fils*, two sons; *le noix*, the nut; *les noix*, the nuts; *le nez*, the nose; *les nez*, the noses.

RULE 3. Nouns ending in *au*, *eau*, *eu*, *oeu*, *ieu*, *ou*, form their plurals by taking an *x*, instead of an *s*; as, *un chapeau*, a hat; *deux chapeaux*, two hats; *un chou*, a cabbage; *deux choux*, two cabbages. But there are these exceptions with regard to nouns ending in *ou*; namely,

<i>cou</i> ,	neck.	<i>fou</i> ,	fool.
<i>trou</i> ,	hole.	<i>matou</i> ,	a he cat.
<i>clou</i> ,	nail.	<i>hibou</i> ,	owl.
<i>filou</i> ,	pickpocket.	<i>loup-garou</i> ,	a ferocious man.
<i>licou</i> ,	halter.		

These follow the *general rule*, and make, in their plurals, *cous*, *trous*, *clous*, and so on.

RULE 4. Nouns ending in *al* and *ail* change these letters into *aux* to form their plural; as, *un mal*, an evil; *plusieurs maux*, many evils; *un travail*, a work; *plusieurs travaux*, many works. But there are these exceptions as to nouns ending in *al*: *bal*, ball (or dance); *pail*, pale in heraldry; *cal*, callous skin; *carnaval*, carnival; *régal*, regale;

all which follow the general rule, and take simply an *s* for the formation of the plural; as, *un bal*, a ball; *trois bals*, three balls, and so on. The following Nouns, ending in *ail*, follow the general rule, and form their plurals by adding an *s* to the singulars :

<i>attirail</i> ,	splendid train.	<i>gouvernail</i> ,	helm.
<i>camail</i> ,	a priest's dress.	<i>mail</i> ,	mail.
<i>détail</i> ,	detail.	<i>portail</i> ,	portal.
<i>éventail</i> ,	fan.	<i>serail</i> ,	seraglio.
<i>épouvantail</i> ,	scarecrow.	<i>travail</i> ,	travail.

Besides these rules, with their exceptions, it is to be observed that there are several nouns which have no plural, and several which have no singular; as, *bonheur*, happiness, and *hardes*, clothes. The names of different sorts of *grain*, of *herbs*, of *flesh*, and of *metals*, have seldom any plurals in either language; and the things which nature or art have made double, or in inseparable numbers, can seldom take nouns in the singular form. Then, there are some nouns so *irregular* as not to admit of being reduced to any thing like rule; as, *œil*, eye; *yeux*, eyes.

69. It would be useless to give *lists* of these here, because such lists could only tend to *load the memory*. The above rules are quite sufficient for all purposes connected with the formation of the plural of nouns. They are clear and short, and will, if written down by you several times, not fail to be a competent guide. You will observe, that it is unnecessary to swell out a book of this kind with matters that are fully explained in the *Dictionary*. If, for instance, you want to know what *eye* is in French, the Dictionary says *œil*; and lest you should think that the plural is formed by adding an *s* to the singular, the Dictionary tells you that the

plural of *œil* is *yeux*. This is the true way of learning, with respect to numbers and genders, all that cannot be reduced to short and certain rule. I must make a remark here relative to the manner of *writing* the above *tables*. The rules of grammar require that there should be a CAPITAL LETTER to begin the word which comes next after a full point. I have not observed this rule in the *tables* and *conjugations*, because it would have been, in some cases, inconvenient in point of *space*.

70. CASES. The word *case*, as used in teaching grammar, means *state*, *situation*, or *position*. A noun may be, at different times, in different *states*, or *situations*, with regard to other nouns in the same sentence. For instance, a noun may be the name of a man who *strikes* a horse, or of one who *possesses* a horse, or of one whom a horse *kicks*. These different situations or states are called *cases*. You will presently see the necessity of this division of the situations of nouns into *cases*; for you will find that *articles*, and some other words, used along with the nouns, *vary their form* to agree with the different cases of the nouns. Therefore this is a matter of great importance, and requires great care and attention.

71. In the Latin language each noun has several *different endings*, in order to denote the different cases in which it may be. In our language there is but *one of the cases* of nouns which is expressed, or denoted, by a change in the ending of the noun. In the French there is no *such change* to denote the case; and this you will see explained presently.

72. There are three cases; the *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective*. The word *nominative* means *naming*; the word *possessive* means *relating to possession*; the word *objective* means *relating to objects*.

73. A noun is in the *Nominative* case, when it names or points out a person or thing which *does* something, or *is* something; as, Richard *strikes*, Richard *is* good. And, observe, it is the same in French; as, Richard *frappe*, Richard *est* bon.

74. A noun is in the *Possessive* case when it denotes a person or thing which *possesses* some other person or thing, or when there is one of the persons or things *belonging* to the other; as, *Richard's hat*, the *mountain's top*, the *nation's fleet*. And here you see that *change in the ending* of our English nouns, spoken of in paragraph 71. But, observe, this change is not absolutely necessary. We may always do without it if we please; for, *the hat of Richard* is the same thing as *Richard's hat*. In French there is no such change; there we say, *le chapeau de Richard*, *le haut de la montagne*, *la flotte de la nation*.

75. A noun is in the *Objective* case, when the person or thing that it expresses or denotes is the *object* or *end* of some act, or of some movement; as, Richard *strikes Peter*; Richard gives a blow *to Peter*; Richard goes *after Peter*; falsehood leads *to mischief*; idleness is the nurse *of vice*. Here you see that all these nouns are in the objective case; that is to say, *Peter*, *mischief*, and *vice*, are the *object*, the *end*, or the *effect*, of something done or felt by some other person or thing, which is in the nominative case.

76. It would be useless to talk about these cases, seeing that the *form* or *spelling* of the noun is the same in all the cases; but when we come to the *pronouns* and *verbs*, you will soon find the necessity of attending very carefully to the cases of the nouns; that is to say, when we come to use the nouns along with the pro-

nouns and the verbs; and this is, as you will find, more strikingly true in French than in English. But, before we come to them, we have to speak of the use of the *definite article*, the treating of which was, in paragraph 50, put off until we should come to the place where we now are.

77. Read Letter V. all through again carefully, and then proceed with me. You see that our definite Article, *the*, never changes its form, but that the French Article, *le*, changes its form many times; and as we have now spoken of the *branches, genders, numbers, and cases* of Nouns, you will the better understand me as I describe the mode of varying the form of the Article; for, in French, the Article varies in its form to agree with these various circumstances in the Noun. Sometimes the French Article is used before *proper* names, and sometimes not. We say *France* is a great kingdom; *fire* burns. But they say, *La France* est un grand royaume; *le feu* brûle. We say, speaking of mankind, *Man*; they say, *l'Homme*. This, however, will be fully explained by-and-by, and especially when we come to the *Syntax*, where we shall see how the Article is used in *sentences*: at present, I have only to show you how it varies its forms to agree with the nouns before which it is placed.

78. The Article must agree with the noun in gender. You have been told, in paragraph 55, that *panier* (basket) is masculine, and that *table* (table) is feminine. Now, then, of these two nouns the first takes the masculine article *le*, and the second the feminine article *la*. But this, you will observe, is only in the *singular number*; for, if the number be *plural*, the article is *les*, whether the noun be masculine or feminine. This is

not, however, always the case; for if the noun *begin with a vowel*, or with an *h* mute (not sounded), the *e*, or the *a*, is omitted in the article, a mark of *elision* is put over the place of the *e*, or the *a*, and the *l'* is put before the singular nouns of both genders; as, *l'oreiller*, the pillow, which is masculine; and *l'âme*, the soul, which is feminine. These four nouns take the article as follows:

<i>le panier,</i>	the basket.	<i>les paniers,</i>	the baskets.
<i>la table,</i>	the table.	<i>les tables,</i>	the tables.
<i>l'oreiller,</i>	the pillow.	<i>les oreillers,</i>	the pillows.
<i>l'âme,</i>	the soul.	<i>les âmes,</i>	the souls.

The *h* mute is, in this respect, like the *vowels*. *L'heure* (hour), which is feminine, and *l'honneur* (honour), which is masculine, both take the article in the same form; but if the *h* be not mute, that is to say, if it be sounded in speaking, you must put the *le* or the *la* agreeably to the gender; as, *le hibou* (the owl), and *la hache* (the axe). But, observe, that, in all instances, the article for the *plural* is *les*.

79. We are now going to see how this definite French article *unites* itself with the little words *de* (of) and *à* (to). In paragraph 49 I have called it, when thus used, a *compound*. *De* and *à* are *prepositions*, as you have seen in paragraph 38, which you will now look at again. *De* sometimes means *from*, and *à* sometimes has a meaning different from that of *to*; but, used before nouns, they generally answer to our *of* and *to*. In speaking *of* a basket, instead of saying, *de le panier*, we must say *du panier*; thus, this one word *du* answers to our two words *of the*. But if we are using a noun of the feminine gender, we must not say, *du*, but *de la*. Then, again, if the noun begin with a vowel, or

an *h* mute; it must, whether it be of the masculine or of the feminine gender, have the *de l'*; and in every instance the plural noun takes *des* for *of the*. Let us here take the same four nouns that we took in the last paragraphs.

<i>du panier,</i>	of the basket.	<i>des paniers,</i>	of the baskets.
<i>de la table,</i>	of the table.	<i>des tables,</i>	of the tables.
<i>de l'oreiller,</i>	of the pillow.	<i>des oreillers,</i>	of the pillows.
<i>de l'âme,</i>	of the soul.	<i>des âmes,</i>	of the souls.

What was said in the last paragraph about the *h* mute applies here also; and we therefore say, *de l'heure, de l'honneur, du hibou, and de la hache.*

80. In like manner the French Article *unites* itself with the preposition *à* (to). In speaking of a basket, instead of saying *à le panier*, we must say *au panier*; that is to say, *to the* basket. But if our noun be of the feminine gender, we must use the *two* words; we must not say *au*, but *à la*. Then, as in the case of *du*, comes the same rule about the *h* mute; and in the plural number, be the gender as it may, *aux* is the word that answers to our *to the*. Therefore the four nouns which we have already had twice before us, will again come before us thus :

<i>au panier,</i>	to the basket.	<i>aux paniers,</i>	to the baskets.
<i>à la table,</i>	to the table.	<i>aux tables,</i>	to the tables.
<i>à l'oreiller,</i>	to the pillow.	<i>aux oreillers,</i>	to the pillows.
<i>à l'âme,</i>	to the soul.	<i>aux âmes,</i>	to the souls.

Bear in mind what was said at the close of the last paragraph about the *h* mute and the *h* sounded, and then you will perceive that we must say *à l'heure, à l'honneur, au hibou, à la hache.*

81. Now, if you pay strict attention to the three last paragraphs; if you read them over in the manner that I have directed, and write them down on paper, you

will soon see no difficulty in the matter, though the French Article is applied to the Nouns in so many forms, while ours always retains the same form, and though in some of the instances above given, the French say in *one word* what we say in *two*. Let me go, here, a little out of my way, in order to inform you, that you will find the like of this to a great extent by-and-by. We say, *to write, to read*, and the like; but they say, *écrire, lire*. We say, *you will write*; but they say, *vous écrirez*; making use of two words where we make use of three. The *reason* of this will appear very clearly to you by-and-by; but the thing itself I have just mentioned here, to guard you against expecting to find the two languages answering each other *word for word*.

82. But we have not yet done with the use of the *Article* with nouns. As far as relates to *common nouns*, taken in a *definite* sense; that is to say, when we are speaking of particular persons or things by names common to all of the kind, the above rules make all clear enough. But there are three other views to take of the use of the *Article* with nouns; *first*, when the noun is the name of persons or things of whom or of which there is but *one* in the universe, or when it is the name of a *species* or *sort*; *second*, when the noun is a *proper name*; *third*, when the noun means a *part*, or *parcel*, or *quantity* of any thing. In all these respects the use of the French *Article* differs greatly from that of the English; and this will be seen in the three following paragraphs, to which I must beg you to pay strict attention.

83. When there is but one of the kind in the universe, we, in English, sometimes make use of the *Article* with the noun, and sometimes not. We say, *God*,

Christ, heaven, hell. The French say *Dieu*, but they say *le Christ, le ciel, l'enfer*. They, as well as we, say *la mer*, the sea; *l'air*, the air; *la terre*, the earth; *le soleil*, the sun; *la lune*, the moon. This is, however, a matter of such limited extent; there are so few nouns of this description, that you will very soon learn to avoid errors in applying the article to them. But when nouns are the names of whole *species* or *sorts*, the manner of applying the article in French is very different from that of applying it in English. We sometimes, in English, in speaking of animals, make use of the *singular* number to express a whole kind, and then we use the article; as, *the dog* is faithful: and the French do the same; as, *le chien* est fidèle. Just take a look for a moment at paragraph 54, where this matter was before spoken of. In speaking of mankind we do not use the article. We say, for instance, *man* is the master of other animals. The French say *l'homme*. They adhere to the use of the article in every such case. We, generally, in speaking of kinds, which consist of *individuals*, animate or inanimate, make use of the plural number, and, in such cases, use no article; as, *baskets* are useful. *owls* catch *mice*. But the French always put the article; as, *des paniers* sont utiles, *les hibous* attrapent *les souris*. We sometimes, indeed, make use of the article in cases that appear to be like these; but it is when we do not mean *the whole* of a *kind*. We say, for instance, *the apples* are dear, *the owls* are numerous this year. But here we do not mean to speak of *the whole* of the kinds, but of the apples and of the owls that come somewhat within our observation and knowledge. The French make no distinctions of this sort; they always put the article,

We, when we have to speak of things, the kinds of which admit not of individuality, such as *sugar, water, wine, beer*, and the like, do not use the article; as, *sugar* is sweet. But the French always use it; as, *le sucre* est doux. We, as in the case of *the apples* just mentioned, sometimes use the article before these nouns expressing masses; but the French always do it. It is the same with regard to the nouns expressing the feelings and qualities of the mind, the virtues, the vices, and so forth. We say, for instance, *friendship, shame, anger*; they say, *l'amitié, la honte, la colère*.

84. Next, as to *proper* names. You have seen, in paragraph 53, what *proper* names, or nouns are. Just read that paragraph over once more, before you go on farther with this. Now, then, observe, we do not use articles before proper names of human beings, nor before proper names given to animals of any sort. We sometimes make use of a sort of poetic license, and say *the SWIFTS*, or *the RACINES*, meaning men of the stamp of those celebrated writers; and in the same sort of way, we say *a SWIFT*, or *a RACINE*. The French do the same; but this is a mere license, and has nothing to do with Grammar. But the French use the article with the proper names of *countries*, and in many other instances, when we do not, as you will find more fully explained when you come to the *Syntax* of Articles.

85. We now come to the noun, when used to express a *part*, a *parcel*, a *quantity* of persons, or things; and here the difference between the two languages is very great. We, generally, in these cases, make use of the word *some*; as, give me *some wine*, give me *some beer*; give me *some apples*. But the French know nothing at all of the word *some*, used in this sense. Their word

quelque answers to our *some*, but they do not use it in the manner here spoken of. They use the article, united, as we have above seen it, with the preposition *de* (of), according to the gender and number of the noun, thus :

Give me <i>some</i> wine,	Donnez-moi <i>du</i> vin.
Give me <i>some</i> beer,	Donnez-moi <i>de la</i> bière.
Give me <i>some</i> apples,	Donnez-moi <i>des</i> pommes.

That is to say, give me a *part* or *quantity* of the wine, and so on. But, observe, when there is an *adjective* that comes *before* the noun, the article is left out, and the preposition *de* (of) only is used ; as,

Give me <i>some good</i> wine,	Donnez-moi <i>de bon</i> vin.
Give me <i>some good</i> beer,	Donnez-moi <i>de bonne</i> bière.
Give me <i>some good</i> apples,	Donnez-moi <i>de bonnes</i> pommes.

The reason is, you see, the *adjective* *changes* to agree with the noun in gender and number ; and, therefore, the article is not wanted. Here we have, give me *of good* wine ; and so on, and not *of the*, as in the former cases. But, observe again, if the adjective come *after* the noun, then the article must be used ; as,

Give me <i>some red</i> wine,	Donnez-moi <i>du vin rouge</i> .
Give me <i>some strong</i> beer,	Donnez-moi <i>de la bière forte</i> .
Give me <i>some ripe</i> apples,	Donnez-moi <i>des pommes mûres</i> .

That is to say, word for word ; give me *of the* wine *red* ; give me *of the* beer *strong* ; give me *of the* apples *ripe*. And, strange as this seems to our ears, a Frenchman would not understand you if you were to say, *Donnez-moi quelque rouge vin*. Nay, if you were to say, *rouge vin*, *forte bière*, and *mûres pommes*, he would wonder what you meant. Yet this is what you naturally would say, unless you were taught the principles and rules of Grammar.

86. I have now gone through the *Etymology of the Noun*. I have considered it in its Branches, its Genders, its Numbers, and its Cases; and I have, towards the close of this Letter, given an explanation of the use of the *Article*, which I could not so well give until I had laid before you an account of the Noun. I shall, in the next Letter, proceed to the Etymology of the *Pronoun*; but before you enter on that, I beg you to read once more, very attentively, all the foregoing Letters.

LETTER VII.

ETYMOLOGY OF PRONOUNS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

87. In paragraph 34 I described to you, in general terms, the nature and use of Pronouns. We are now going to treat of the etymology of this sort of words; that is to say, we are going to see how they *vary their forms* to suit themselves to the various circumstances in which they may be wanted to be used; and this variation of form we shall find much more extensive in the French than in the English Pronouns.

88. There are five Classes of pronouns: the *Personal*; the *Possessive*; the *Relative*; the *Demonstrative*; and the *Indeterminate*. For you, in this early stage of your study, to be able to distinguish these Classes one from the other, is impossible. You will be able to do this by-and-by; but it is necessary for me to make the division into classes here; because I shall have, almost directly, to speak of Pronouns under these different denominations.

89. PERSONAL PRONOUNS are those which *take the place of nouns*. This office is, indeed, performed by all Pronouns, and hence comes their name. But the other Pronouns do not supply the place of nouns in the same way, and in a manner so complete. There are *Three Persons*: for instance, "*I* am writing to *you* about *him*." You see, then, that the pronoun which represents the person that speaks, is in the *first* person; that which stands in the place of the name of the per-

son who is spoken to, is in the *second* person ; and that which stands in the place of the name of the person spoken of, is in the *third* person. This circumstance of person is a matter to be strictly attended to ; because, as you will by-and-by see, the *verbs* vary their endings to correspond with the person of the pronoun.

90. Pronouns of the *First* and *Second* Person vary their form to express *number*, and those of the *Third* Person to express *gender* also. And here we come to a comparison between the English and French in this respect.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1st Person,	I <i>je</i> or <i>moi</i> .	we, <i>nous</i> .
2nd Person,	thou, <i>tu</i> .	you, <i>vous</i> .
3rd Person, Masculine,	he, <i>il</i> .	they, <i>ils</i> .
— Feminine,	she, <i>elle</i> .	they, <i>elles</i> .
— Neuter,	it.	they.

Thus, you see, as was explained in paragraphs 54 and 55, the French have *no neuter gender*. All, with them, is *male* or *female* ; so that they have no word to answer to our *it* ; nor have they any use for such a word. In speaking of a man we say, *he* is ; of a stick, *it* is ; but they have *il* est in both cases. Besides this, you see that, in the third person plural, we have only our *they*, whether we speak of males, females, or neuters. But they have a change in their pronoun to agree with the gender of the nouns that the pronouns represent. Whether we speak of males, or of females, or of neuters, we say *they* are, but the French, in speaking of males, say *ils* sont, and of females, *elles* sont.

91. Besides the *Number* and *Gender*, there is the *Case* to be considered in these personal pronouns. In paragraphs from 72 to 77 inclusive, I explained the nature of the *cases* ; and I there apprised you, that when

you came to the *pronoun*, you would find that it had *different endings*, or, rather, that it assumed different forms, to accord with the different cases; as, *I, me, he, him*, and so on. The following table will exhibit the difference between the English and the French in this respect; but there will still remain much to be explained:

SINGULAR NUMBER.

	<i>Nominative.</i>		<i>Possessive.</i>		<i>Objective.</i>	
1st Person,	I,	<i>je.</i>	of me,	<i>de moi.</i>	me,	<i>me, moi.</i>
2nd Person,	thou,	<i>tu,</i>	of thee,	<i>de toi.</i>	thee,	<i>te, toi.</i>
3rd Person, Masculine,...	he,	<i>il.</i>	of him,	<i>de lui.</i>	him,	<i>le, lui.</i>
— Feminine,	she,	<i>elle.</i>	of her,	<i>d'elle.</i>	her,	<i>la, elle, lui.</i>
— Neuter,	it.		of it.		it.	

Before we go to the Plural Number, we must pay a little attention to this table. You have been told about the numbers and genders before; but here you see new changes to designate the *cases*, and you see that these changes are not nearly so frequent in English as in French. You see, in the objective case, *me* and *moi* for our *me*; you see *le* and *lui* for our *him*: you see *la* and *lui* for our *her*. Now, sometimes the one of these is used, and sometimes the other. When the one ought to be used, and when the other, the *Syntax* of Pronouns will teach you; but let me just give you an example here. *Donnez-moi le bâton que Jean me donna hier.* That is, give *me* the stick that John gave *me* yesterday. The *Syntax* will teach you why it ought to be *moi* in one place, and *me* in the other. You see *le* and *la* in this table answering to our *him* and *her*; and this may puzzle you, because you have seen so much of the *le* and *la*, as Articles. But I observed to you before, in paragraph 43, that words frequently belonged to *two* parts of speech; or, rather, that though

containing the *same* letters, they were, in different situations, different words. Example: Envoyez ici *le* messenger que je *le* récompense. That is, send hither *the* messenger that I may reward *him*. Again: Prenez *la* jument et mettez-*la* dans *la* basse-cour. Take *the* mare and put *her* in *the* yard. Here the word *la* comes three times: twice it is an article, answering to our *the*, and once a pronoun, answering to our *her*. For some time you will think that this is *very strange*, and that this French is an odd sort of language. The French think just the same of ours till they understand it; and you will find, by-and-by, that it is *all* precisely as it ought to be, and that it would be odd, indeed, if it were any thing other than that which it is. We now come to the plural number.

PLURAL NUMBER.

	Nominative.	Possessive.	Objective.
1st Person,.....	we, <i>nous.</i>	of us, <i>de nous.</i>	us, <i>nous.</i>
2nd Person,.....	you, <i>vous.</i>	of you, <i>de vous.</i>	you, <i>vous.</i>
3rd Person, Masculine, they, <i>ils, eux.</i>	of them, <i>d'eux.</i>	them, <i>les, leur, eux.</i>	
— Feminine, they, <i>elles.</i>	of them, <i>d'elles.</i>	them, <i>les, leur, elles.</i>	
— Neuter, they.	of them.	them.	

Here seems to be a pretty confusion; for here is our *they* sometimes answered by *ils*, then by *eux*, and both in the masculine. Then our *them* is sometimes *les* and sometimes *leur*, in both genders; and then it is *eux* in one gender, and *elles* in the other. Here, too, we see the plural article *les* answering to our *them*. But all this, puzzling as it is to you at present, will become perfectly plain by-and-by. You will be told, for instance, that when the verb signifies communication from one person or thing to another, it takes *leur*, and that, when it signifies something done to an object, it takes *les*, or *eux*, or *elles*, as the case may be. Speaking of cattle, we should say, mettez-*les* dans la basse-cour,

et donnez-*leur* du foin. Put *them* in the yard and give *them* some hay; that is to say, give *to them* some hay.

92. Once more let me remind you, that you must not be at all surprised at what appears to you to be a strange placing of the French words. You must get this surprise out of your mind as soon as possible, and learn to think that it is *right* that one language should differ thus from another. Remember also what I have said about the *same letters* not always making the *same word*. For instance, the *leur* that you see here means *to them*; but it means, in other cases, *their*. In the first instance it is a personal pronoun, in the latter a possessive pronoun. Pay attention to this, or it will cause you to waste your time.

93. Before I go to the next class of Pronouns, let me observe, that the second person singular, *tu*, *toi*, *te*, answering to our *thou* and *thee*, are not used in French much more than our *thou* and *thee* are in English. Something more they are indeed; for the French *thou* little children, and also very low people. They do it, too, when upon terms of very great familiarity. But, generally speaking, they, like us, use the second person plural, instead of the second person singular; and, as we say *you* instead of *thou*, they say *vous* instead of *tu*. The same may be observed as to *thy* and *thine*, of which you will see more presently.

94. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS. These do not indeed *take the place* of nouns; but as they come immediately from the personal pronouns, it is better to place them here than any where else. They are unaffected by *case*, because they have nouns always *with them*, expressed or understood. They are as follows:

	SINGULAR PERSON.	PLURAL PERSON.
1st Person,.....	my, <i>mon, ma, mes,</i>	our, <i>notre, nos.</i>
2nd Person,.....	thy, <i>ton, ta, tes.</i>	your, <i>votre, vos.</i>
3rd Person, Masculine,	his, <i>son, sa, ses.</i>	their, <i>leur, leurs.</i>
— Feminine,	hers, <i>son, sa, ses.</i>	their, <i>leur, leurs.</i>
— Neuter.	its.	their.

Here you see a great many changes of the French pronoun; and you see that our one word *my*, for instance, has three words, by either of which it may be answered. But, observe, our possessive pronouns agree in *number* and *gender* (where they meddle with gender) with the noun which is the *possessor*; whereas the French possessive pronoun pays no attention to the *possessor*, but agrees in number and gender with the persons or things *possessed*. Thus, while we say, in English, *my* father, *my* mother, *my* brothers, *my* sisters; the French say, *mon* père, *ma* mère, *mes* frères, *mes* sœurs. If we have to speak of a master's maid-servant, and of a mistress's man-servant, we must say *his* maid and *her* man. But the French must say, *sa* servante and *son* domestique. So that you will remember, the gender, as stated in the above table, applies to the *English only*. The French possessive pronoun forms itself by a rule wholly different from ours. It agrees in number and gender with the person or thing that is *possessed*, and not that is the *possessor*. But you will further observe, that, in the plural number of things possessed, the French possessive pronouns take no notice of gender. I say, *mes* mains, my hands, and *mes* bras, my arms, though the first is feminine and the last masculine. Neither, you see, is gender taken any notice of in the *plural persons*, though the things possessed be in the singular. I must say, *mon* chien, my dog, *ma* poule, my hen; but I must say, *notre* chien and *notre* poule.

The same remark applies to *votre* and *leur*, your and their. [As to *mon*, *ton*, and *son*, when before a noun beginning with a vowel or an *h* mute, see paragraph 309.]

95. But there are some of these possessive pronouns which stand without the noun. They refer immediately to it indeed; but they do not go directly before it, like the others. Such as *mine* and *yours*; as, whose pen is that? It is *mine*. Thus, the pronoun, though it directly refers to the noun, and denotes possession, does not come directly before it. These, in French, take the article; and, in the above case, in answer to the question about the pen, I must answer, *la mienne*; and not call it simply *mine*. As the pronouns must take the article, the article must agree with them in number and gender, as with the nouns, as before shown in the Etymology of Nouns. These pronouns themselves vary their form to express both number and gender in the three persons singular, and to express number in the three persons plural; as follows:

SINGULAR POSSESSION.			PLURAL POSSESSION.		
<i>Masculine.</i>		<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>		<i>Feminine.</i>
<i>mine,</i>	le mien,	la mienne,	les miens,	les miennes	
<i>thine,</i>	le tien,	la tienne,	les tiens,	les tiennes.	
<i>his,</i>	le sien,	la sienne,	les siens,	les siennes.	
<i>hers,</i>	le sien,	la sienne,	les siens,	les siennes.	
<i>ours,</i>	le nôtre,	la nôtre,	les nôtres,	les nôtres.	
<i>yours,</i>	le vôtre,	la vôtre,	les vôtres,	les vôtres.	
<i>theirs,</i>	le leur,	la leur.	les leurs,	les leurs.	

The Article is applied to these exactly as to nouns, and according to the instructions in paragraphs from 78 to 83 inclusive. Thus we say, *du mien*, *de la mienne*, *des miens*, *des miennes*, *au mien*, *à la mienne*, *aux miens*, and *aux miennes*; and so on, throughout the whole of

these pronouns, precisely as in the case of nouns, as explained in the paragraphs just referred to. Once more let me remind you, that whenever these possessive pronouns express *gender*, it is the gender of the thing *possessed*, and not the gender of the possessor.

96. RELATIVE PRONOUNS. The following pronouns are called *relative*, because they generally relate to the nouns which have gone before in the sentence. Indeed, all pronouns relate to nouns. But it is useful to put them in classes, and, therefore, this appellation is given to these pronouns which follow. The *Relatives*, in English, are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what* in some cases. *Who* becomes *whose* and *whom*: the other three do not change their form. The French *Relatives* are *qui*, *lequel*, *quoi*; and some others that I shall mention presently. We, in some cases, use *who* and *that* indifferently for persons and things. *Which* we apply only to things. These Relative pronouns of the two languages answer to each other thus:

who,	<i>qui.</i>	whom,	<i>que, qui.</i>
that,	<i>qui, que.</i>	which,	<i>qui, que, lequel.</i>
whose,	<i>de qui, dont.</i>	what,	<i>quoi, que, quel.</i>
of whom,	<i>de qui, dont.</i>		

This is not the place to go into a detail of the cases when one of these is to be used, and when the other. That will be done in the *Syntax of Pronouns*, after I shall have gone through the *Etymology of Verbs*; for we must speak of these when we are giving instructions for the proper use of the pronouns. It seems, at first sight, that there must be great difficulty here, but you will find that all these difficulties gradually disappear.

97. None of the above pronouns, except *quel* and *lequel*, change their form to express number and gender. These two do it thus:

<i>Masculine.</i>			<i>Feminine.</i>	
quel,	quels.		quelle,	quelles.
lequel,	lesquels.		laquelle,	lesquelles.

The former does not take the article. It merely takes the preposition. But the latter takes the article, and joins it to itself.

de quel,	de quels.	de quelle,	de quelles.
à quel,	à quels.	à quelle,	à quelles.
duquel,	desquels.	de laquelle,	desquelles.
auquel,	auxquels.	à laquelle,	auxquelles.

98. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS are those which *point out* persons or things in contradistinction to others. Ours are, *this, these, that, those*, and sometimes *what*: as, *this* is the man whom I wanted to see; *those* are the books which I wish you to read. The French have *one* pronoun of this sort, from which all the rest appear to come; and that is *ce*, which, according to circumstances, means *this* or *that*. It becomes *cel* before a singular noun masculine, beginning with a *vowel* or an *h* mute; *cette* before all feminine nouns in the singular; and *ces* before all plural nouns of both genders. Besides this, several other pronouns grow out of this one, and vary their forms according to situation and circumstances. As follows:

SINGULAR.

<i>Masculine.</i>		<i>Feminine.</i>	
<i>ce</i> , or <i>cet</i> ,	this, or that.	<i>cette</i> ,	this, or that.
<i>celui</i> ,	he, or that.	<i>celle</i> ,	she, or that.
<i>celui-ci</i> ,	this.	<i>celle-ci</i> ,	this.
<i>celui-là</i> ,	that.	<i>celle-là</i> .	that.

PLURAL.

<i>Masculine.</i>		<i>Feminine.</i>	
<i>ces</i> ,	these, or those.	<i>ces</i> ,	these, or those.
<i>ceux</i> ,	those.	<i>celles</i> ,	those.
<i>ceux-ci</i> ,	these.	<i>celles-ci</i> ,	these.
<i>ceux-là</i> ,	those.	<i>celles-là</i> .	those.

There are, also, *ceci* and *cela*; *ce* is sometimes put before *qui* and *que*, making *this* *that*; as, *ce que vous*.

dites; *this that* you say; or, as we should express it, *that* which you say. All these pronouns take the preposition *de* or *à* before them occasionally; but *not the article*. Observe, I beg you, the little words, *ci* and *là* (the latter with an accent, to distinguish it from the article). These, you see, are added to some of these pronouns. *Ci* means *here*, and *là* means *there*. So that, taken literally, *celui-ci* means *this here*, and *celui-là* means *this there*. There is, in fact, precisely this same meaning in *ceci* and *cela*; only the two former admit of variation to answer the purposes of number and gender, and the two latter do not.

99. INDETERMINATE PRONOUNS make the last class of words of this Part of Speech. Amongst the most important of the *Indeterminate Pronouns* are *le, en, y, on, and se*. These are words of great use in French; and, properly speaking, we have, in English, nothing that answers to some of them. We sometimes, indeed, say, *one* is pleased, *one* hears, *one* thinks, and the like; but this is not the French *on*, nor is it congenial to our language. And then, when we say *one's-self*, it is seldom in the way that the French use their *se*; besides, the *se* becomes *soi* in many cases, and is a most prevalent and efficient word in the French language. Therefore, I must not attempt to give you the *English* of these words here; but request you to bear them in mind as things to be explained in the *Syntax* of Pronouns. I shall now give you a list of the Indeterminate Pronouns; and you will see that, though there are no variations in the form of the English Pronouns of this class, it is otherwise with those of the French. Some you will find without variations of form; but the greater part vary to express gender and number.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.		
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.	
All,	<i>tout,</i>	<i>toute,</i>	<i>tous,</i>	<i>tout s.</i>	
both,	<i>l'un et l'autre,</i>	<i>l'une et l'autre,</i>	<i>les uns et les autres,</i>	<i>les unes et les autres.</i>	
either,	<i>l'un ou l'autre,</i>	<i>l'une ou l'autre,</i>	<i>les uns ou les autres,</i>	<i>les unes ou les autres.</i>	
neither,	<i>ni l'un ni l'autre,</i>	<i>ni l'une ni l'autre.</i>	<i>ni les uns ni les autres,</i>	<i>ni les unes ni les autres.</i>	
one another,	<i>l'un l'autre,</i>	<i>l'une l'autre,</i>	<i>les uns les autres,</i>	<i>les unes les autres.</i>	
somebody, or some one,	} <i>quelqu'un,</i>	<i>quelqu'une,</i>	<i>quelques-uns,</i>	<i>quelques-unes.</i>	
everybody, or everyone,					
nobody, no one, none,	} <i>aucun,</i> <i>nul,</i>	<i>aucune.</i> <i>nulle.</i>			
anybody, whoever,					
whatever,	<i>quelconque,</i>	} Singular Number only, and of both genders.			
nobody,	<i>personne,</i>				
many,	<i>plusieurs,</i>	Plural Number only, and of both genders.			
nothing,	<i>rien,</i>	Singular Number only, and of both genders.			
it, so, or such,	} <i>le,</i> <i>en,</i> <i>y,</i> <i>on,</i>	} These never change their forms.			
of it, of him, of her, of them,					
to it, to him, to her, to them,					
one, they, we, people,					
self, or selves,	} <i>se,</i> which sometimes becomes <i>soi.</i>				

[Certain other words might be included in the foregoing list; as, *autrui*, others, other people; *qui que ce soit*, whoever, whosoever, anybody. Some are classed, according to the sense in which they are used, either as pronouns or as adjectives.]

100. This is a formidable list; but it will be overcome by industry and patience. Some of these words are not always pronouns; and as to the *last five* in the table, they have by some been called *relative* pronouns, while others have called them *personal* pronouns. They do not appear to me to belong to either of those classes; but seem to come under the appellation given to this class. However, it signifies not much how we class them, so that we learn *the use of them*, so that we get at their true meaning, and learn how to apply them; on what occasions to use them, and how to place them in sentences. To teach us this must be the business of the *Syntax*. The words

<i>chaque,</i>		each, or every,
<i>quelque,</i>		some, or any,
<i>tel,</i>		such, or like,

are by some considered as pronouns. The two former are more properly adjectives; and so is the latter, excepting when it is employed, as it may be, in the sense of our *somebody* or *certain person*.

. LETTER VIII

ETYMOLOGY OF ADJECTIVES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

101. Turn to paragraph 35; for there you will find my description of this part of speech. Having read that paragraph, you will now learn the difference between our Adjectives and those of the French, and this difference you will find to be great indeed. Our adjective, is, in all its different situations, the same in *form*; that is, composed of the *same letters*, except where its form is changed to express *degrees* in the qualities, the properties, or the dimensions, of the nouns to which it is applied: as, a *great* man, a *greater* man, the *greatest* man. This is all that our adjectives change their form to accomplish. Sometimes we mark these degrees of comparison by the help of the words *more* and *most*; and we *can* always do it if we like: as, a *great* man, a *more great* man, the *most great* man. This is not done, generally, when our adjectives are words of one or two syllables; but it is when they are longer words; as, a *deplorable* event, a *more deplorable* event, or a *most deplorable* event. In this respect, the French language is still more simple than ours; for it almost *always* marks the degrees of comparison in this way; as, un *grand* homme (a great man), un *plus grand* homme, le *plus grand* homme. There are a few words of very common use with regard to which this rule is not followed; but what I have to say further about the

degrees of comparison I must put off, till I have spoken of the *genders* and *numbers* of Adjectives.

102. In paragraph 55 I opened this subject; and you will do well to read that paragraph again, together with the two following ones. Indeed, it is necessary to read them, as they belong to what I am now writing. Thus, you see, then, that, while our adjectives have no changes of form, except to express the degrees of comparison, no French adjective can be used with propriety (except by mere accident) unless we know how to change its form to make it agree in *gender* and *number* with the noun to which it relates. Here is another, and a very great matter, wholly unknown to our language. Our word *white*, for instance, is always *white*, whether applied to paper, to skin, or to one paper or two papers, or one skin or two skins. Not so the French word; that is, papier *blanc*, peau *blanche*, papiers *blancs*, peaux *blanches*. Now, then, let us see what *assistance* we can get from *rules*, to enable us to perform this very important part of the business of speaking and writing French. For, mind, errors in this are essential. It will seem strange to you, but it is a fact, that if you were to say, papier *blanche*, or peau *blanc*, a Frenchman would *scarcely understand* you. Odd as it appears to us, that the Article, the Pronoun, and the Adjective, must all agree in gender with the noun; useless as this appears to us, it must take place in French, or the words that you would utter would be more broken and ridiculous gibberish than ever a Frenchman muttered when only just beginning to make an attempt to speak English! •

103. It being, then, absolutely necessary that we know how to vary the adjectives so as to make them

agree in gender and number with their nouns, let me now speak to you of the rules for this purpose, beginning with those which relate to the *genders*.

104. This is by no means so difficult a matter as the *gender of nouns*. In the case of the adjectives, we get at something worthy of being called *rule*; whereas, in that of the nouns, we only tease and torment ourselves, and add greatly to our toil, by endeavours to find out rules to ease us of our labour. The Adjective, in its primitive state, as *grand* (great), is always applicable to the noun of the masculine gender and singular number. What we want to know, therefore, is, how to change its form so as to make it of the *feminine* gender. By looking into the Dictionary for the French word to answer to our word *pretty*, we find *joli*. This tells us that, as *homme* is *man*, we may say *joli homme*. But it must not be *joli* before *femme*, woman; and we want to know what it must be. The large Dictionary will, indeed, tell us; but we cannot always have this in our hands; therefore, we seek for rules; and, in this case, we shall find them convenient and easy.

105. The feminine form is given to the Adjective by making some *addition*, or *change*, in the ending of it; as, *petit* (little), *petite*; or, as, *bas* (low), *basse*. Our rules, therefore, must be founded on the ending of the primitive adjective; and they are as follows:

FIRST RULE. All Adjectives that end with an *e* mute are of both genders. They do not change their form on account of gender; as, un homme *sage*, une femme *sage*; a wise man, a wise woman. ‘ ‘

SECOND RULE. Now, *generally speaking*, the others ‘ only add an *e* mute to form their feminines; as,

impertinent, impertinente. And, observe, this is invariably the case with all adjectives ending with *vowels*: except *favori*, favourite, the feminine of which is *favorite*. *Béni*, blessed, changes to *bénie*; except when the term to be used refers to the rites of the church, and then we must employ the passive participle of the verb *bénir*, to bless: as, *pain béni*, consecrated bread; *eau bénite*, holy-water.

THIRD RULE. Adjectives ending in *f*, change the *f* into *ve*; as, *positif*, *positive*.

FOURTH RULE. Adjectives ending in *c*, change the *c* into *che*; as, *blanc*, *blanche*. There are four exceptions to this rule, *public*, *Grec*, *Turc*, *caduc*, which change the *c* into *que*; as, *public*, *publique*.

FIFTH RULE. Adjectives ending in *n*, with an *o* or *ie* before the *n*, add *ne*; as, *bon*, *bonne*; but if there be not an *o* or *ie* before the *n*, the adjectives ending in *n* follow the *second rule*; that is to say, they add an *e* mute: as, *fin*, *fine*.

SIXTH RULE. Adjectives ending in *l*, with *e*, *o*, *u*, or *ei*, before it, add *le*; as, *cruel*, *cruelle*. But if the final *l* be not preceded by one of these vowels, or by *ei*, the adjectives ending in *l* follow the general rule, and simply take an *e* mute in addition; as, *futil*, *futile*. One exception there is, however, in *gentil*, which makes *gentille*.

SEVENTH RULE. Adjectives ending in *t*, with *e* or *a* before it, generally add *te*; as, *net*, *nette*. But this is not without exception, for *secret* becomes *secrète*, which is the case with some others.

EIGHTH RULE. Adjectives ending in *eur* or *eux*, change them into *euse*; as, *moqueur* (sneering), *moqueuse*; *religieux* (religious), *religieuse*. But of the adjectives ending in *eur*, the following are exceptions to this rule, and follow the Second Rule; that is to say, add an *e*.

	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
anterior,	<i>antérieur,</i>	<i>antérieure.</i>
posterior,	<i>postérieur,</i>	<i>postérieure</i>
citerior,	<i>citérieur,</i>	<i>citérieure.</i>
ulterior,	<i>ultérieur,</i>	<i>ultérieure.</i>
interior,	<i>intérieur,</i>	<i>intérieure.</i>
exterior,	<i>extérieur,</i>	<i>extérieure.</i>
major,	<i>majeur,</i>	<i>majeure.</i>
minor,	<i>mineur,</i>	<i>mineure.</i>
superior,	<i>supérieur,</i>	<i>supérieure.</i>
inferior,	<i>inférieur,</i>	<i>inférieure.</i>
better,	<i>meilleur,</i>	<i>meilleure.</i>

The following can be brought under no rule. They are few in number; they are words of very common use, and their manner of forming their feminines may be quickly learned.

	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
soft,	<i>mou,</i>	<i>molle.</i>
foolish,	<i>fou,</i>	<i>folle.</i>
fine,	<i>beau,</i>	<i>belle.</i>
new,	<i>nouveau,</i>	<i>nouvelle.</i>
false,	<i>faux,</i>	<i>fausse.</i>
long,	<i>long,</i>	<i>longue.</i>
sweet,	<i>doux,</i>	<i>douce.</i>
reddish,	<i>roux,</i>	<i>rousse.</i>
fresh,	<i>frais,</i>	<i>fraiche.</i>
benignant,	<i>benin,</i>	<i>benigne.</i>
malignant,	<i>malin,</i>	<i>maligne.</i>
jealous,	<i>jaloux,</i>	<i>jalouse.</i>
green,	<i>vert,</i>	<i>verte.</i>

It is to be observed, that *beau* was formerly written *bel*; and we now say, *bel homme*, *bel esprit*; and *bel et bon* (literally, handsome and good) is a common phrase.

Nouveau was formerly written *nouvel*; and it is so still, when coming before a noun which begins with a vowel; as, *le nouvel an*, the new year. The same with the masculine of *mou*, which may be *mol*; as, *le mol édredon*, the soft down. Also with that of *fou*, which may be *fol*; as, while you must say, *il est fou d'amour*, he is love-mad, you must not say, *c'est un fou amour*, it is a foolish love affair, but, *c'est un fol amour*.

106. If these rules be properly attended to, there can be few mistakes as to the gender of adjectives, which, you will bear in mind, depends, in all cases, upon the gender of the nouns to which they belong.

107. As to the NUMBER, adjectives form their *plurals* from their singulars in the same manner that nouns do, and that manner is described fully in paragraph 68, to which you must now go back. Read that whole paragraph again very carefully, and apply to the adjectives what you there find in the five rules relating to the numbers of nouns. The adjective is to agree with its noun in number; as, *un grand homme*, a great man; *deux grands hommes*, two great men. Having, then, the number of the noun, you use the singular, or the plural, of the adjective accordingly; and, again I observe, you are to form the plural from the singular according to the five rules in paragraph 68, which apply to adjectives as well as to nouns, and which, therefore, it is wholly unnecessary to repeat here.

108. There are about twenty adjectives ending in *al*, which, like some nouns, have no plural number, except in a particular instance or two; but a detail of these is unnecessary here; because the manner of using them will be amply taught, by-and-by, in the course of the

Exercises. This is one of those matters on which a great deal of time might be employed with great ingenuity, but with very little profit.

109. There now remains to be noticed the manner of forming the DEGREES OF COMPARISON, mentioned before in paragraph 101. It was there observed, that the French, instead of changing, so frequently as we do, the endings of the adjectives to denote *degrees* in the qualities and properties and dimensions of the nouns, make use *almost always*, as we do *sometimes*, of *plus* and *le plus*, answering to our *more* and *the most*. Suppose we be speaking of a *pretty* garden, the degrees would be formed thus:

pretty,		prettier,		prettiest.
joli,		plus joli,		le plus joli.

This is almost the invariable rule in French. But, observe, that the *le* becomes *la* if the noun be a feminine; so that, if, with this same adjective, we were speaking of a *flower*, which is feminine, the words must stand thus:

pretty,		prettier,		prettiest.
jolie,		plus jolie,		la plus jolie.

110. There needs nothing further to be said on a matter so plain. But there are a few French adjectives which are *irregular* in this respect. We have, in our language, a few such; as, *good*, which does not make *gooder* and *goodest*, but *better* and *best*. We have, besides, *bad*, *little*, *much*, which are also irregular. The French have only four adjectives of this description; and these answer, in point of meaning, to the first three of ours. They are, *bon*, good; *mauvais*, bad; *méchant*, wicked; and *petit*, little. Their degrees are formed thus.

<i>bon,</i>	<i>meilleur,</i>	<i>le meilleur.</i>
good,	better,	the best.
<i>mauvais,</i>	<i>pire,</i>	<i>le pire.</i>
bad,	worse,	the worst.
<i>méchant,</i>	<i>pire,</i>	<i>le pire.</i>
wicked,	wickeder,	wickedest.
<i>petit,</i>	<i>moindre,</i>	<i>le moindre.</i>
little,	less,	the least.

Observe, however, that all these, except the first, frequently form their degrees by the aid of *plus* and *le plus*. *Plus mauvais*, *plus méchant*, and *plus petit*, are proper enough; and even *plus bon* is not absolutely bad French. Still, the above is the usual mode of forming the degrees of these adjectives, which form the only exceptions to the general rule.

111. There are, as you will see by-and-by, some of the *Adverbs* which have degrees of comparison; but that is a trifling matter; and at any rate, it does not belong to that Part of Speech the Etymology of which has been the subject of this Letter. There is much to attend to in *placing* the adjective; for it must sometimes come before and sometimes after the noun. But this is matter for the Syntax of Adjectives. The great thing belonging to adjectives is, the *gender*. The *number* must be attended to also; but we are most apt to commit mistakes in regard to the genders. We English are very apt to look upon these genders of adjectives as being useless. This is, as you will find, a great error. They not only give to the language a pleasing variety of sound; but, in many cases, they tend to prevent sentences from being equivocal.

LETTER IX.

ETYMOLOGY OF VERBS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

112. In paragraph 36 I explained to you what *sort* of words Verbs are. You must now read that paragraph again with great attention. Having done that, you will enter on an inquiry into the *variations of form* to which words of this sort are liable; and you will find, that in French these variations are upwards of *thirty* in number, while in English they are only *four*. The verb *to find*, for instance, becomes *findest, finds, found, finding*. This verb can take no other than one of these forms; but the French verb *trouver*, which answers to our verb *to find*, does, as you will see by-and-by, assume more than *thirty* different forms; that is to say, is composed, under so many different circumstances, of different letters.

113. Now, the Etymology of verbs teaches us when one of these forms is to be used, and when another; and this, there being so many different forms, must evidently be a matter of great importance. In order to know what form the verb is to be in, that is to say, what letters it is to be composed of, we must first learn something about the different circumstances in which verbs may be placed; because, as I have just observed, the verb changes its form to accommodate itself to those different circumstances. These circumstances are, *Person, Time, and Mode*. Verbs are distinguished as *active, passive, or neuter*; but that is another matter,

and is to be treated of farther on. At present we have to do with the three circumstances just mentioned; because on them *depend all the changes* in the form of the verb.

114. As to PERSON, you have, in the last Letter, but one, had the distinction about the *persons* fully explained to you; but you will do well now to read paragraphs 89 and 90 again. I am to speak of the *Modes* by-and-by; but I must here anticipate a little. There are *four* modes: the *Infinitive*, the *Indicative*, the *Subjunctive*, and the *Imperative*. The distinctions will appear more clearly hereafter; but it is necessary to say here, that the *Infinitive Mode* exhibits the verb in its primitive and unrestricted sense; *as, to find*. In this mode it is a sort of Noun in point of grammar; *as, to find* faults in others *is* very common. This is called the *Infinitive Mode*, because when used in this *mode*, or manner, the verb is in its large and general sense, and not confined to person or time. But that which induces me to introduce this matter here is, to show you, before we enter into a comparison of the two languages with respect to verbs, the difference between an English and a French verb in this their primitive, or original, form. Our verb in this state has the word *to* always with it and *belonging to it*. The French verb has no such thing. It is complete in itself; and, accordingly, *trouver* means *to find*. Bearing this in mind, we will now proceed to consider the circumstances of *Person*. The *Verb* must *agree* in person with the noun or pronoun. For instance, I say, *I find*; but I must say, *thou findest*, and *he finds*. Then, if I am speaking of the act of a number of persons, I must not say, *they finds*, but *they find*. However, in our language, the changes

in the form of the verb are, as was before observed, few, while in the French they are numerous; and I will now give you a specimen of the great difference of the two languages in this respect.

<i>je trouve,</i>	I find.	<i>nous trouvons,</i>	we find.
<i>tu trouves,</i>	thou findest.	<i>vous trouvez,</i>	you find.
<i>il trouve,</i>	he finds.	<i>ils trouvent,</i>	they find.

Here, you see, there are only *three* different forms of the English verb, while there are *five* of the French; and these differing, too, very widely from each other.

115. TIME is the next circumstance; for an action, or a state of being, may be spoken of as in the *present*, the *past*, or the *future* time: as, I *find*, I *found*, I *shall find*. The verb changes its form, therefore, to suit itself to this circumstance of *time*; but, its changes in French are very different from the changes in English. In English we generally add *ed* to the *present time* of the verb, in order to make the *past time*; as, I *love*, which makes, I *loved*. I must stop here to remark, that we, as well as the French, have some *irregular* verbs, and that these do not form their past times in the same way; as, *write*, which makes *wrote*; or, with the verb *to find*, which makes *found*. But this is a matter to be treated of farther on. At present we must confine ourselves to an explanation of the difference in the manner in which the two languages make the changes in their verbs, in order to denote the circumstance of *time*: that is to say, in order to tell us, whether the action spoken of be done in the present, was done at a past, or is to be done at a future, time. Let us now see the difference.

<i>je trouvais,</i>	I found.	<i>nous trouvions,</i>	we found.
<i>tu trouvais,</i>	thou foundest.	<i>vous trouviez,</i>	you found.
<i>il trouvait,</i>	he found.	<i>ils trouvaient,</i>	they found.

Thus, you see, the difference is great indeed; and you will, of course, see that this circumstance of time is of great importance. But far is this from being all with regard to the past time; for the French have *two past times*. That which I have exhibited is called the *past imperfect*; the other, which you will see a specimen of presently, is called the *past perfect*. When one of these is to be used, and when the other, will be explained when we come to the *Syntax* of Verbs, which we shall in Letter XXIII. (Par. 387); but they must be both noticed here; for one of them is as often used as the other, and they must by no means be confounded with each other. In some cases I must translate *I found*, by *je trouvais*; but in other cases I must translate it by *je trouvai*; and I must go through all the persons in the following manner:

<i>je trouvais,</i>	I found.	<i>nous trouvâmes,</i>	we found.
<i>tu trouvas,</i>	thou foundest.	<i>vous trouvâtes,</i>	you found.
<i>il trouva,</i>	he found.	<i>ils trouvèrent,</i>	they found.

Then, as to the *future* time, we, in English, have the little words *will* and *shall*, which we put before the verb to express the future meaning; but the French have no such little words. mind that, I beg you. They express the future meaning by a change in the ending of the verb itself; and this constitutes one of the great differences in the two languages. Our words *will* and *shall* not only express future time, but convey also a meaning as to *intention* and *obligation*. The French have no different endings of their verbs to express these, which, in their language, are to be gathered from the tenor of the whole sentence. They have complete verbs which express *will*, *power*, and *duty*, and that supply the place of our *will*, *can*, *shall*, *should*, *might*,

and, the rest. Letter XXIV. (Par. 444) will contain an account of these. In exhibiting the difference between the languages in this respect, I shall take the word *will*, though you will understand, that I might, for this purpose, take *shall* with equal propriety.

<i>je trouverai,</i>	I will find.	<i>nous trouverons,</i>	we will find.
<i>tu trouveras,</i>	thou wilt find.	<i>vous trouverez,</i>	you will find.
<i>il trouvera,</i>	he will find.	<i>ils trouveront,</i>	they will find.

Great as these changes in the form of the verb are, there are other and still greater changes; but you have now seen a sufficient specimen of those which arise out of the circumstances of *person* and of *time*.

116. MODE generally means *manner*; and in grammar it has the same meaning. At the beginning of paragraph 114 I have spoken of the *Infinitive Mode*. I have now to speak of the three other Modes: the *Indicative*, the *Subjunctive*, and the *Imperative*, the two former of which must be carefully distinguished from each other; because the verb, in its several times, *changes its form* to suit itself to this circumstance of Mode. The *Imperative Mode* you will find to be a matter of little difficulty; but when you ought to use the *Indicative*, and when the *Subjunctive*, form, you will find to be a matter of great importance. You will, therefore, give your best attention to what I am now about to say. We sometimes speak of an action in a *declaratory* manner; that is to say, we INDICATE, or declare, or in other words, merely say, that the action is taking place, or that it has taken, or will take, place. But at other times we speak of it in a *conditional* manner. In these latter cases there is always something *subjoined*, in the way of condition or consequence. There is some subjoined, or SUBJUNCTIVE, circumstance.

When, therefore, a verb is used in the first of these manners, it is in the *Indicative Mode*; and when in the second, it is in the *Subjunctive Mode*. These names and distinctions would be useless, if it were not that the form of the verb changes in order to agree with the *Modes*. For instance, I say, he *finds*. This simply *indicates* that he does the act. But I must say, *he find*, if I have a condition or consequence to subjoin; as, though *he find* a sheep, *he cannot sell it*. Thus you see in the one case it is *finds*, and in the other case *find*, though the person and the number of the pronoun be the same in both cases. In our language, however, there is but little variation in the *verb itself* to express this change in the *Modes*. We express the greater part of the changes by the means of the little words *may*, *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*. The French have no such words; and, in all these cases of a subjunctive nature, they express themselves in a manner wholly different from ours, as you will see by-and-by, when you come to the Syntax of Verbs. The Verb in the *Indicative Mode* is as it has been exhibited in the two preceding paragraphs, showing the present, past, and future of the verb *to find*. In the *Subjunctive* there is *no future*, properly so called; but, a present time and two past times. The present of the *Subjunctive* is, in the three persons singular, and in the third person plural, the same precisely as the present of the *Indicative*, in the verb *trouver*. But this is not the case with some other verbs, as you will see by-and-by. The present of the *Subjunctive* is, therefore, as follows:

je trouve,	I may find.	nous trouvions,	we may find.
tu trouves,	thou mayest find.	vous trouviez,	you may find.
il trouve,	he may find.	ils trouvent,	they may find.

Before every phrase of this sort, in this mode of the verb, there is, in French, *que*, answering to our *that*; and in most cases there is the *that* in English, either expressed or understood; but I omit the *que* here; because I am here merely showing you how the verb *changes its form*. The next change, or rather, set of changes, that it takes, is to express the *past time* of the *Subjunctive*. I shall take the word *should* to put before the English verb; but *would*, or *could*, might do as well for this mere purpose of exhibiting the changes in the form of the French verb.

<i>je trouverais</i> ,	I should find.	<i>nous trouverions</i> ,	we should find.
<i>tu trouverais</i> ,	thou shouldst find.	<i>vous trouveriez</i> ,	you should find.
<i>il trouverait</i> ,	he should find.	<i>ils trouveraient</i> ,	they should find.

Now, this is not, strictly speaking, a *past time* either in French or in English; nor is that which I am now going to exhibit. But it is necessary to give them *names*; and, therefore, the above is called the *past imperfect* of the *Subjunctive Mode*, and the following is called the *past perfect* of the *Subjunctive Mode*; and this is in imitation of the *names* rather than of the *things* used in the *Indicative Mode*. This past perfect, then, is as follows:

<i>je trouvasse</i> ,	I might find.	<i>nous trouvassions</i> ,	we might find.
<i>tu trouvasse</i> ,	thou mightest find.	<i>vous trouvassez</i> ,	you might find.
<i>il trouvat</i> ,	he might find.	<i>ils trouvasent</i> ,	they might find.

But you must take care to remember, that it is not *always* that these English phrases are translated by these French phrases. It frequently happens, that where the *Indicative Mode* is used in one language the *Subjunctive* is used in the other. These matters will be explained when we come to the *Syntax*. What I am doing here is merely teaching you the changes in

the *form* of the verbs. Of the *Modes*, then, there remains only the *Imperative*. It is called the *Imperative*, because it is used in *commanding*; but it is also used in *calling to* or *invoking*. It is, in fact, in English, nothing more than the *present of the Indicative*, accompanied with some words expressing a command, a wish, or a prayer, or the like. In the verb *trouver* it causes no change at all in the form of the verb, except in the second person singular; but this is not the case with regard to some other verbs. The first person singular has no place here; because no person commands or calls to himself.

—	—	trouvons,	•	let us find.
trouve.	find.	trouvez,	•	find.
qu'il trouve,	let him find.	qu'ils trouvent,	•	let them find.

When we are speaking directly to another, or to others, in the second person, either singular or plural, we have only to name the act that they are to do at our request or command; and, therefore, if we want them to *find*, we simply say, *find*. But, when there are others to *partake with us* in the act, or where the parties who are to act are third parties, we make use of *let*. The French, you see, in the first of these cases, simply use the word describing the act; as, *trouvons*, which means *find we*, or *let us find*. And in the third person, whether singular or plural, they make use of *que*; that is to say, *that*. Literally, *that he find*, *that they find*. The *qu'il* and *qu'ils* are written with the elision, according to the rule which you found in paragraph 24. It must not be *que il*, because *il* begins with a vowel. This is, then, *that he find*. And, if you examine closely, you will find our own phrase to be precisely the same. For, what do we mean by *let him find*? We may, in some

cases mean, indeed, to give him *leave* to do it; but, in general, this is not what we mean. Our meaning, when we make use of such phrases, generally is, let *things be so THAT he find*, or perform the act of *finding*. The French simply say, *that he find*.

117. I have now gone through the circumstances of *Person, Time, and Mode*. But the verb assumes *two other forms*, called the *Participles*. We have the same in English; as, *finding, found*. They are called *participles*, because they partake of the nature of *adjectives* and of *verbs*. Of verbs they are *a part*; and yet they are frequently *adjectives*: as, I am *killing* a sheep; it is a *killing* disease. In the first of these instances *killing* is a verb, in the last an *adjective*. This is called the active participle. *Killed*, which is, with us, spelled like the past time of the verb, is called the passive participle. I *killed* a sheep; there is a *killed* sheep. In the first of these instances it is a verb, in the last an adjective. You will see that the French passive participle is not the same in form as the past time of the verb. (See further, as to participles, paragraph 122, and paragraph 436.)

118. Let me now lay before you a complete *Conjugation* of the two verbs before mentioned, *to find*, and *trouver*. To conjugate means, in its usual acceptation, to *join together*; and, as used by grammarians, it means to bring together, and to place under one view, all the *variations* in the form of a verb, beginning with the Infinitive Mode, and ending with the Participle. These two verbs, then, I will now place before you, in all their *persons, times, and modes*. But before I give you the conjugation of a verb, let me observe that there are *two ways of writing the past imperfect*

times of the French verbs. You see, in the conjugation opposite, *trouvais, trouvait, trouvaient*; and again, *trouverais, trouverait, trouveraient*. VOLTAIRE wrote *trouvais* instead of *trouvois*, and so on in the other parts of the verb, where *o* used formerly to be employed before *i*, as you will see in old French books. Since the time of VOLTAIRE the *a*, instead of the *o*, has been almost universally adopted. Observe, that there ought to be *que* before the pronouns, in the present and past perfect times especially, of the *subjunctive mode*; as, *que je trouve, que je trouvasse*, and so on; but I leave out the *que* for want of room in the width of the page.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Trouver, | To find.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

<i>je trouve,</i>	I find.	<i>nous trouvons,</i>	we find.
<i>tu trouves,</i>	thou findest.	<i>vous trouvez,</i>	you find.
<i>il trouve,</i>	he finds.	<i>ils trouvent,</i>	they find.

Past Imperfect Time.

<i>je trouvais,</i>	I found.	<i>nous trouvions,</i>	we found.
<i>tu trouvais,</i>	thou foundest.	<i>vous trouviez,</i>	you found.
<i>il trouvait,</i>	he found.	<i>ils trouvaient,</i>	they found.

Past Perfect Time.

<i>je trouvais,</i>	I found.	<i>nous trouvâmes,</i>	we found.
<i>tu trouvas,</i>	thou foundest.	<i>vous trouvâtes,</i>	you found.
<i>il trouva,</i>	he found.	<i>ils trouvèrent,</i>	they found.

Future Time.

<i>je trouverai,</i>	I shall find.	<i>nous trouverons,</i>	we shall find.
<i>tu trouveras,</i>	thou shalt find.	<i>vous trouverez,</i>	you shall find.
<i>il trouvera,</i>	he shall find.	<i>ils trouveront,</i>	they shall find.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

<i>je trouve,</i>	I may find.	<i>nous trouvions,</i>	we may find.
<i>tu trouves,</i>	thou mayest find.	<i>vous trouviez,</i>	you may find.
<i>il trouve,</i>	he may find.	<i>ils trouvent,</i>	they may find.

Past Imperfect Time.

<i>je trouverais,</i>	I should find.	<i>nous trouverions,</i>	we should find.
<i>tu trouverais,</i>	thou shouldst find.	<i>vous trouveriez,</i>	you should find.
<i>il trouverait,</i>	he should find.	<i>ils trouveraient,</i>	they should find.

Past Perfect Time.

<i>je trouvasse,</i>	I might find.	<i>nous trouvassions,</i>	we might find.
<i>tu trouvasse,</i>	thou mightest find.	<i>vous trouvassez,</i>	you might find.
<i>il trouvât,</i>	he might find.	<i>ils trouvaissent,</i>	they might find.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

<i>trouve,</i>	find.	<i>trouvons,</i>	let us find.
<i>qu'il trouve,</i>	let him find.	<i>trouvez,</i>	find.
		<i>qu'ils trouvent,</i>	let them find.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>trouvant,</i>	finding.
<i>trouvé,</i>	found.

119. Thus have you this French verb completely before you. You will observe that I have, all through, taken no notice of *genders*; but you will conclude, of course, that as, whether it be *he*, *she*, or *it*, the verb is the same in English, so it is in French, whether it be *il* or *elle*. I have therefore thought it unnecessary to put the *she*, or the *it*, or the *elle*, in any of these tables. You will also observe, that the French phrases in the Subjunctive would, in part at least, require the *que* before them; but the object here has been to bring you acquainted merely with the *changes in the form* of the French verb. According to the rules of grammar every complete sentence begins with a CAPITAL LETTER; I have not observed this rule in the *Examples*, *Tables*, and *Conjugations*; because it would encumber the page, and, in some cases, not leave room for placing the words in a neat and clear manner.

120. This table of conjugation should be well considered by you before you go any further. You will, at first, think that all these *endings* of the French verb, or rather, all these *various forms*, make a difficulty never to be overcome. But a little time will, if you be attentive and industrious, make all this difficulty disappear. You will remark that the end of the verb consists of *er*; and **that all** the changes consist of letters put in the place of, or added to, the *er*. Now, it is the *same in other verbs*. For instance, *gronder* (to scold) becomes *je gronde*, *je grondais*, *je grondai*, *je gronderai*, *je gronde*, *je gronderais*, *je-grondasse*. So that, when you become perfectly well acquainted with the changes in the verb *trouver*, you will of yourself be able to make all the changes in other verbs; and you will be surprised how readily you will do this in a very short time.

Parler (to speak) will no sooner meet your eye than you will know that you must say, *je parle, je parlais, je parlai, je parlerai, je parle, je parlerais*, and so on.

121. This, however, would be *too easy*. Every person would learn French, if the difficulties were no greater than this. *All the French verbs do not end in er; and those that do not are not conjugated in this way; that is to say, they do not vary their forms in the way that the verb trouver varies its form.* But observe, the whole number of French verbs do not exceed *three thousand*, or thereabouts; and of these, about *two thousand seven hundred* end in *er*; so that the rest are not very numerous. This rest, however, are, for the far greater part, *reducible to rule*. They are formed into *nine* other classes, which are called *Conjugations*, and which, together with the verbs ending in *er*, make ten conjugations in the whole. There is one class which end in *ir*, and this class contains about *a hundred and ninety-eight* verbs, all conjugated in the same way. So that, if we were to make but *two* regular Conjugations, there would remain but about *a hundred* verbs not included in these two. These hundred would, of course, have no *rule*, and would be to be learned separately. If we make *ten* Conjugations, we reduce the irregular ones to about *forty*; and I shall make *ten* Conjugations, because the verbs are so considered in *BOYER'S Dictionary*, which is the dictionary in general use. You will perceive, however, that this is merely arbitrary; we make *nine* or *ten*, just as we please. It is a mere classification of the verbs, for the sake of more easily learning how to make the changes in their form.

122. Then, after we have made the *ten* classes, or Conjugations, there remain about *forty* verbs, which do

not come into either of those classes, and these are called *Irregular Verbs*. In English we call those of our verbs *regular*, which end their *past time* and their *passive participle* in *ed*; as in the case of *to love*, which becomes *loved*. Those which do not end their *past time* and their *passive participle* thus, we call *irregular*. For instance, *to write*, is irregular, because I cannot say *writed*, but must say *wrote* and *written*. So with *to find*, which must be *found*, and not *finded*. We have, in English, about a *hundred and forty* of these irregular verbs; but then we have but *one* Conjugation of regular verbs, while in French we can make *ten*. Yet this will be found to be a matter by no means full of difficulty. When we have gone through the principles and rules of Etymology, you will find, in Letter XIV., all these irregular verbs brought together under one head, or into one TASK, and also an account of the *ten* Conjugations, and a method pointed out for learning the whole. I avoid introducing this detail here, because it would too much interrupt your progress, and carry your mind too far away from what it has already been engaged in. My business here has been to show you the principles upon which the French verbs vary their forms; and for this purpose one verb is better than many. I, therefore, leave all the details relating to the several *Conjugations*, and to the *Irregular Verbs*, to be treated of in another place, where you will find them in due time.

123. But there are *two verbs*, into all the particulars relating to which I must go here; because there is *no other verb* that can be used in all its capacities without one of these two being used with it. These two are AVOIR (to have) and ÊTRE (to be). These, in French,

as well as in English, are called *Auxiliary Verbs*. The word, *auxiliary* means *helping*, or *helper*; as an *auxiliary army* is an army that comes to the help or assistance of another army. These verbs are so called because they *help* other verbs to express that which they otherwise would not express. Suppose the subject we are talking about to be *my finding* a sheep, or anything else, and that I want to tell you that the act is *ended*, that I *have closed* the work; I cannot easily, if at all, tell you **this** without the *help* of the verb *to have*. To say I *find*, or *found*, or *will find*, a sheep, neither of these will answer my purpose. No; I must call in the *help* of the verb *to have*, and say, I *have found* a sheep. So, in the past-time, it would be, I *had found* a sheep. It is precisely the same in French.

j'ai trouvé un mouton,
j'avais trouvé un mouton,

I have found a sheep.
I had found a sheep.

Now, observe, the verb *to have*, besides being a *helper*, is sometimes a verb of *itself*, a *principal* in the sentence, and signifies *possession*; as, I *have* a sheep; that is to say, I *possess* a sheep. It is, as a principal, a verb of great use in both languages; and in French, I think, more than in English. The French say, sometimes, *son avoir*, meaning a person's *possessions*: that is to say, *his* or *her to have*. Odd as this sounds to us, we ourselves say, a man's *havings*, though the word is rather out of use. Instead of saying, his *havings* are great, the French say, his *to have* is great. This you will by-and-by find to be a turn of the French idiom. In such cases we mostly make use of the active participle, and they of the infinitive of the verb; as, *killing* a man is a great crime. They say, not *tuant*, but *tuer* un homme est un grand crime. One of our *weights* is called

Avoir *dupois*. This is all French, *avoir* (to have) *du* (of the) *poids* (weight); that is to say (because we leave out the *du*), *to have weight*; or, in other words, *to have enough of it*; and this is, accordingly, our *heaviest* weight. I was considering *avoir* as an *auxiliary*; but this digression appeared necessary, in order to show you the *principle* out of which has arisen the use of this verb along with other verbs. The idea of *possession* always adheres to the verb *avoir*: for, **when** I say, I *have* found a sheep, I, in fact, say that **the** act is mine: I am the *owner* of the act; I *have* it.

124. The verb *être* (to be) expresses *existence*, and always carries that idea along with it. *To be* ill, *to be* rich, mean to *exist* in illness, or in riches. This verb must have the help of *to have* in its *compound times*, of which I shall speak presently; but, in French, it is, along with verbs used in a certain way, employed as an auxiliary *instead* of *to have*, which is never the case in English; but of this I shall have to speak fully in a few minutes.

125. Let me now lay before you these two verbs, completely *conjugated*, in the same manner that you have seen *Trouver* in paragraph 118. But, let me first observe, that you must look again attentively at what I have, in paragraph 118, said about the *que*, which ought to be placed before the pronouns in the conjugation of the *present* and of the *past perfect* of the subjunctive mode; as, *j'air* ought to be *que j'aie*. I have, as I said before, omitted the *que* for want of room in the page. Once more, before I give you the conjugation of *avoir*, let me press upon you the necessity of becoming, as soon as possible, perfectly well acquainted with this verb. You will remember that the *compound times* of other

verbs are formed with its help; and that even the compound of *être* cannot be formed without the help of *avoir*. It is, therefore, a word of very great importance, and it merits your best attention. Write it down, in all its forms, very often: and, if you have a teacher, or any one to hear you read, read it over many, many times.—What was said in paragraph 119, about the *she* and *it* in English, and about the *elle* or *elles* in French, and also about using the *que* in the Subjunctive Mode, applies in the case of these auxiliary verbs as well as in that of all others. Read, therefore, that paragraph again, before you go any further. Having well considered all about the verb *avoir*; having marked well all its changes of form, you will next come to the verb *être*. But just observe that, there are two ways of spelling *aie* and *aies*. Some write *aye*, *ayes*, instead of the former. It is of little consequence which spelling we make use of. The same you will see taking place in *ÊTRE*; some write, in a part of the verb, *soient*, and others *soyent*. I mention it, lest it should be a stumbling-block to you; but it is, otherwise, a matter of no consequence. The verb *AVOIR* ought to be, in all its parts, at your fingers' ends, before you proceed further. You ought to write it many times over; and, if you have a teacher, or any one to read to, it will be good to read it, with its pronouns, fifty times over. The best way is to become very familiar with it before you go to *ÊTRE*, so that they may not get confounded in your mind. You have been told that the *compound times* of verbs are formed by the help of *AVOIR*? but you will, by-and-by, find that some verbs take *ÊTRE* to help in the forming of their compound times. The French say, *je suis tombé*, I am

fallen; and not *j'ai tombé*, I *have fallen*. You will soon see something about *reflected verbs*; and then you will see how frequent and how great the use of this verb ÊTRE, and how necessary it is that you should have a perfect knowledge of it as soon as possible.

[NOTE.—A VOIR and ÊTRE, whether as auxiliaries or otherwise, are of such constant use, that it must be good for the learner to see the whole of the changes of each in one view. Each, therefore, of these verbs will here be given in the compound as well as in the simple form, the two forms standing opposite to one another, the simple form on the left-hand, and the compound on the right-hand page.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Avoir, | To have.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

<i>j'ai,</i>	I have.	<i>nous avons,</i>	we have.
<i>tu as,</i>	thou hast.	<i>vous avez,</i>	you have.
<i>il a,</i>	he has.	<i>ils ont,</i>	they have.

Past Imperfect Time.

<i>j'avais,</i>	I had.	<i>vous avions,</i>	we had.
<i>tu avais,</i>	thou hadst.	<i>vous aviez,</i>	you had.
<i>il avait,</i>	he had.	<i>ils avaient,</i>	they had.

Past Perfect Time.

<i>j'eus,</i>	I had.	<i>nous eûmes,</i>	we had.
<i>tu eus,</i>	thou hadst.	<i>vous eûtes,</i>	you had.
<i>il eut,</i>	he had.	<i>ils eurent,</i>	they had.

Future Time.

<i>j'aurai,</i>	I shall have.	<i>nous aurons,</i>	we shall have.
<i>tu auras,</i>	thou shalt have.	<i>vous aurez,</i>	you shall have.
<i>il aura,</i>	he shall have.	<i>ils auront,</i>	they shall have.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

<i>j'aie,</i>	I may have.	<i>nous ayons,</i>	we may have.
<i>tu aies,</i>	thou mayest have.	<i>vous ayez,</i>	you may have.
<i>il ait,</i>	he may have.	<i>ils aient,</i>	they may have.

Past Imperfect Time.

<i>j'aurais,</i>	I should have.	<i>nous aurions,</i>	we should have.
<i>tu aurais,</i>	thou shoulddest have.	<i>vous auriez,</i>	you should have.
<i>il aurait,</i>	he should have.	<i>ils auraient,</i>	they should have.

Past Perfect Time.

<i>j'eusse,</i>	I might have.	<i>nous eussions,</i>	we might have.
<i>tu eusses,</i>	thou mightest have.	<i>vous eussiez,</i>	you might have.
<i>il eût,</i>	he might have.	<i>ils eussent,</i>	they might have.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

<i>ayez,</i>	have.	<i>ayons,</i>	let us have.
<i>qu'il ait,</i>	let him have.	<i>ayez,</i>	have.
		<i>qu'ils aient,</i>	let them have.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>ayant,</i>	having.
<i>eu,</i>	had.

COMPOUNDS OF THE AUXILIARY *AVOIR*.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Avoir eu, ¶ To have had.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Compound of the *Present Time*.

<i>j'ai eu,</i>	I have had.	<i>nous avons eu,</i>	we have had.
<i>tu as eu,</i>	thou hast had.	<i>vous avez eu,</i>	you have had.
<i>il a eu,</i>	he has had.	<i>ils ont eu,</i>	they have had.

Compound of the *Past Imperfect Time*.

<i>j'avais eu,</i>	I had had.	<i>nous avions eu,</i>	we had had.
<i>tu avais eu,</i>	thou hadst had.	<i>vous aviez eu,</i>	you had had.
<i>il avait eu,</i>	he had had.	<i>ils avaient eu,</i>	they had had.

Compound of the *Past Perfect Time*.

<i>j'eus eu,</i>	I had had.	<i>nous eûmes eu,</i>	we had had.
<i>tu eus eu,</i>	thou hadst had.	<i>vous eûtes eu,</i>	you had had.
<i>il eut eu,</i>	he had had.	<i>ils eurent eu,</i>	they had had.

Compound of the *Future Time*.

<i>j'aurai eu,</i>	I shall have had.	<i>nous aurons eu,</i>	we shall have had.
<i>tu auras eu,</i>	thou shalt have had.	<i>vous aurez eu,</i>	you shall have had.
<i>il aura eu,</i>	he shall have had.	<i>ils auront eu,</i>	they shall have had.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Compound of the *Present Time*.

<i>j'aie eu,</i>	I may have had.	<i>nous ayons eu,</i>	we may have had.
<i>tu aies eu,</i>	thou mayest have had.	<i>vous ayez eu,</i>	you may have had.
<i>il ait eu,</i>	he may have had.	<i>ils aient eu,</i>	they may have had.

Compound of the *Past Imperfect Time*.

<i>j'aurais eu,</i>	I should have had.	<i>nous aurions eu,</i>	we should have had.
<i>tu aurais eu,</i>	thou shouldst have had.	<i>vous auriez eu,</i>	you should have had.
<i>il aurait eu,</i>	he should have had.	<i>ils auraient eu,</i>	they should have had.

Compound of the *Past Perfect Time*.

<i>j'eusse eu,</i>	I might have had.	<i>nous eussions eu,</i>	we might have had.
<i>tu eusses eu,</i>	thou mightest have had.	<i>vous eussiez eu,</i>	you might have had.
<i>il eût eu,</i>	he might have had.	<i>ils eussent eu,</i>	they might have had.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

[Wanting.]

PARTICIPLES.

Past and Present, compounded.*ayant eu*, ¶ having had.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Être, | To be.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

<i>je suis,</i> <i>tu es,</i> <i>il est,</i>	I am. thou art. he is.	<i>nous sommes,</i> <i>vous êtes,</i> <i>ils sont,</i>	we are. you are. they are.
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Past Imperfect Time.

<i>j' étais,</i> <i>tu étais,</i> <i>il était,</i>	I was. thou wast. he was.	<i>nous étions,</i> <i>vous étiez,</i> <i>ils étaient,</i>	we were. you were. they were.
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Past Perfect Time.

<i>je fus,</i> <i>tu fus,</i> <i>il fut,</i>	I was. thou wast. he was.	<i>nous fûmes,</i> <i>vous fûtes,</i> <i>ils furent,</i>	we were. you were. they were.
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Future Time.

<i>je serai,</i> <i>tu seras,</i> <i>il sera,</i>	I shall be. thou shalt be. he shall be.	<i>nous serons,</i> <i>vous serez,</i> <i>ils seront,</i>	we shall be. you shall be. they shall be.
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SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

<i>je sois,</i> <i>tu sois,</i> <i>il soit,</i>	I may be. thou mayest be. he may be.	<i>nous soyons,</i> <i>vous soyez,</i> <i>ils soient,</i>	we may be. you may be. they may be.
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Past Imperfect Time.

<i>je serais,</i> <i>tu serais,</i> <i>il serait,</i>	I should be. thou shouldst be. he should be.	<i>nous serions,</i> <i>vous seriez,</i> <i>ils seraient,</i>	we should be. you should be. they should be.
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Past Perfect Time.

<i>je fusse,</i> <i>tu fusses,</i> <i>il fût,</i>	I might be. thou mightest be. he might be.	<i>nous fussions,</i> <i>vous fussiez,</i> <i>ils fussent,</i>	we might be. you might be. they might be.
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IMPERATIVE MODE.

<i>sois,</i> <i>qu'il soit,</i>	be. let him be.	<i>soyons,</i> <i>soyez,</i> <i>qu'ils soient,</i>	let us be. be. let them be.
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PARTICIPLES.

<i>étant,</i> <i>été,</i>	being. been.
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COMPOUNDS OF THE AUXILIARY *ÊTRE*.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Avoir été, | To have been

INDICATIVE MODE.

Compound of the *Present Time*.

<i>j'ai été,</i>	I have been.	<i>nous avons été,</i>	we have been.
<i>tu as été,</i>	thou hast been.	<i>vous avez été,</i>	you have been.
<i>il a été,</i>	he has been.	<i>ils ont été,</i>	they have been.

Compound of the *Past Imperfect Time*.

<i>j'avais été,</i>	I had been.	<i>nous avions été,</i>	we had been.
<i>tu avais été,</i>	thou hadst been.	<i>vous aviez été,</i>	you had been.
<i>il avait été,</i>	he had been.	<i>ils avaient été,</i>	they had been.

Compound of the *Past Perfect Time*.

<i>j'eus été,</i>	I had been.	<i>nous eûmes été,</i>	we had been.
<i>tu eus été,</i>	thou hadst been.	<i>vous eûtes été,</i>	you had been.
<i>il eut été,</i>	he had been.	<i>ils eurent été,</i>	they had been.

Compound of the *Future Time*.

<i>j'aurai été,</i>	I shall have been.	<i>nous aurons été,</i>	we shall have been.
<i>tu auras été,</i>	thou shalt have been.	<i>vous aurez été,</i>	you shall have been.
<i>il aura été,</i>	he shall have been.	<i>ils auront été,</i>	they shall have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Compound of the *Present Time*.

<i>j'aie été,</i>	I may have been.	<i>nous ayons été,</i>	we may have been.
<i>tu aies été,</i>	thou mayest have been.	<i>vous ayez été,</i>	you may have been.
<i>il ait été,</i>	he may have been.	<i>ils aient été,</i>	they may have been.

Compound of the *Past Imperfect Time*.

<i>j'aurais été,</i>	I should have been.	<i>nous aurions été,</i>	we should have been.
<i>tu aurais été,</i>	thou shouldst have been.	<i>vous auriez été,</i>	you should have been.
<i>il aurait été,</i>	he should have been.	<i>ils auraient été,</i>	they should have been.

Compound of the *Past Perfect Time*.

<i>j'eusse été,</i>	I might have been.	<i>nous eussions été,</i>	we might have been.
<i>tu eusses été,</i>	thou mightest have been.	<i>vous eussiez été,</i>	you might have been.
<i>il eût été,</i>	he might have been.	<i>ils eussent été,</i>	they might have been.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

(Wanting.)

PARTICIPLES.

Present of avoir and Past of être, compounded.

ayant été, | having been.

126. Here, then, you have these two important verbs in all their various forms. Great, indeed, is the change from *être* to *fussions*; but it is still the *same word*. Our *to be*, becomes *was* and *were*: but yet these are still the *same word*, only under different forms; and as we know very well when to use one of these forms, and when the other, so you will, in a short time, with due diligence, know when you are to use one of the French forms and when the other.

127. I have now to call your attention to the *Compound Times* of verbs, and to verbs when they are called *Reflected*; because it is here that you will see the use of AVOIR and ÊTRE as *auxiliaries*. The *compound times* are so called because they are expressed by *two verbs* instead of one; as, I *have found*; I *had found*; and so on. But, in fact, there is nothing more in this, than that the verb *to have* is put before the *passive participle* of the *principal verb*: so that these compound times, as they are called, are nothing more than the simple times of the verb *to have*, going before the passive participle of some other verb; thus:

<i>j'ai trouvé un mouton,</i>	have found a sheep.
<i>j'avais trouvé un mouton,</i>	had found a sheep.
<i>j'eus trouvé un mouton,</i>	had found a sheep.
<i>j'aurai trouvé un mouton,</i>	shall have found a sheep.
<i>j'aie trouvé un mouton,</i>	may have found a sheep.
<i>j'aurais trouvé un mouton,</i>	I should have found a sheep.
<i>j'eusse trouvé un mouton,</i>	I might have found a sheep.

You see, it is always *trouvé*; that is to say, the *passive participle* of the verb *trouver*. The change is only in the *auxiliary*; and this is all that need be said about the *compound times*, except that we have now to notice how the *Reflected verbs* are used, and how the *auxiliaries* are employed in relation to them.

128. A *Reflected Verb* is one which expresses an action that is *confined to the actor*; and, in this respect, the two languages differ materially. But before I say more of this matter, I must speak of verbs as *active* and *neuter*. A verb is called *active* when it expresses an action of one person or thing which *passes* to another person or thing; as, the hawk kills the sparrow. A verb is called *neuter*, either when there is *no action*; as, the hawk *moults* (or lets fall out its feathers), or when there is an action which does *not pass to any object*; as, *the hawk flutters*. It is the same in French; that is to say, the first of these verbs is active in French, and the two last *neuter*, in one language as well as in the other; and the translation into French would stand thus:

le faucon tue le moineau,
le faucon mue,
le faucon volète,

the hawk kills the sparrow.
the hawk moults.
the hawk flutters.

Thus, you see, in the first instance, there is an *action*, and it *passes* from the hawk to the sparrow. In the second, there is *no action* on the part of the hawk; for his feathers merely come out without his doing anything. In the third, there is *an action*, and of the hawk himself too; but it does *not pass to anything else*. This distinction, therefore, between active and neuter verbs is very clear; and it is of some importance, because the use of other words in the sentence must depend, sometimes, on whether the verb be *active* or *neuter*. But, mind, there is no change in the form of the verb to express the active, or the neutral character of it.

129. Thus far there is, as to this matter, no difference in the two languages; but many of the verbs,

which are merely *neuter* in English, are *reflected* in French; and, if reflected, they must be used with a *double pronoun*, or with a noun *and* a pronoun; whereas, if not reflected, they are used in the usual way. Thus, the hawk *perches* on the tree. Here we, in English, have the verb used in the common way, just as, the hawk *kills*, the hawk *moults*, the hawk *flutters*. But, this *to perch*, being a *reflected* verb, must have, in the French, the pronoun as well as the noun; thus: le faucon *se perche* sur l'arbre; or, if the pronoun be used instead of *hawk*, it must be *il se perche* sur l'arbre; that is to say, word for word, *he himself* perches upon the tree. We *may*, in English, say, he perches *himself* upon the tree, but this we do not frequently do. There are some few cases in English where it is *necessary* for us to use the *self*; as, I *hurt myself*; but, in French, there are great numbers of verbs that *must* be thus used; and, in the Dictionary, you will find them with *se* always before them; thus, *Se Percher*, To Perch. Any *active* verb may be, and, indeed, must be, used in the same way as a reflected verb, if the action be *done to the actor*. Thus, *to kill* may be used in this manner; as, the hawk *kills himself*: le faucon *se tue*. When we use the *myself*, *thysself*, *himself*, and so on, the French verb is sure to be reflected; but it is reflected, in many cases, where we do not use *the self*.

130. Having explained the reasons upon which this distinction is founded, let us now see how a reflected verb is *conjugated*; how it is used with the double pronoun; and let us, for this purpose, take the verb *to perch*.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Se Percher, || To Perch.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time. •

<i>je me perche,</i>	I perch.	<i>nous nous perchons,</i>	we perch. .
<i>tu te perches,</i>	thou perchest.	<i>vous vous perchez,</i>	you perch.
<i>il se perche,</i>	he perches.	<i>ils se perchent,</i>	they perch.

We need not carry the conjugation any further; because the verb goes on changing its form, just like *trouver* in paragraph 118; and the only difference is, that here there are *two pronouns*, while in the case of the active verb *trouver*, there was only one. But, if *trouver*, or any other active verb, express an action *done to*, or *confined to*, the actor, then it must be treated as a reflected verb. So that, if I am talking of persons *finding themselves*, I must say,

<i>je me trouve,</i>	<i>nous nous trouvons,</i>
<i>tu te trouves,</i>	<i>vous vous trouvez,</i>
<i>il se trouve,</i>	<i>ils se trouvent;</i>

and so on throughout the whole of the verb. In paragraph 99 you have seen *Se* placed amongst the *Indeterminate Pronouns*. It is *indeterminate* because it points out neither *gender* nor *number*. It means *self* or *selves*: and it is applicable to the third person of both numbers and both genders; for whether we be speaking of males or females, of one or more, the *se* never changes its form: thus, *il se perche*, he perches; *elle se perche*, she perches; *ils se perchent*, they perch; *elles se perchent*, they perch. The above phrases, word for word, would stand in English thus:

<i>je me trouve,</i>	I me find.
<i>tu te trouves,</i>	thou thee find.
<i>il se trouve,</i>	he himself h. ds.
<i>nous nous trouvons,</i>	we us find.
<i>vous vous trouvez,</i>	you you find.
<i>ils se trouvent,</i>	they themselves find.

This sounds *strange* to us English, but not *stranger* than our mode of expression does to the French. I *find myself*, is just as strange to them. You will ask, perhaps, how it is that *nous nous* is translated by *we us*. It is because *nous* sometimes means *we*, and sometimes *us*. And, if you think that it will be difficult to know when it means the one and when the other, pray observe that we are situated in the same manner with regard to our *you*. You will know when it has the one meaning, and when the other, by its connection with the other words of the sentence.

131. Let me add here, that when there is a *Noun* used with these reflected verbs, all the difference is, that the first pronoun is left out; as,

le faucon se perche,
les faucons se perchent,

| the hawk perches.
 the hawks perch.

132. Very well, then: all this is, I think, plain enough. But there is another material thing belonging to the reflected verb; namely, the *compound times*. I spoke of these times in paragraph 127, and showed you that they were nothing more than the several parts of the verb AVOIR (to have) used with the *passive participle* of another verb. Read that paragraph again. But, now mind, when it is a *reflected* verb that you are using, or any verb in the reflected form; when either of these is the case, it is not the verb *avoir*, but the verb *être* (to be), that you are to use as the auxiliary, strange as this rule may at first sound to your ears. In paragraph 127 I have given you a table, in the way of specimen, of the conjugation of the verb *trouver* with *avoir*. *Trouver* is, in that paragraph, an *active verb*. I will now take it as a reflected verb also, and show you how it is conjugated with *être* as well as with *avoir*.

j'ai trouvé un mouton,
je me suis trouvé,
j'avais trouvé un mouton,
je m'étais trouvé,
j'eus trouvé un mouton,
je me fus trouvé,
j'aurai trouvé un mouton,
je me serai trouvé,
j'aie trouvé un mouton,
je me sois trouvé,
j'aurais trouvé un mouton,
je me serais trouvé,
j'eusse trouvé un mouton,
je me fusse trouvé,

I have found a sheep.
 I have found myself.
 I had found a sheep.
 I had found myself.
 I had found a sheep.
 I had found myself.
 I shall have found a sheep.
 I shall have found myself.
 I may have found a sheep.
 I may have found myself.
 I should have found a sheep.
 I should have found myself.
 I might have found a sheep.
 I might have found myself.

Thus, you see, all through, it is the verb *être*, instead of the verb *avoir*, with which the verb *trouver* is used in the reflected sense. I have taken here only the first person singular, which is all that is necessary, because the other persons go on in the same way; as, *nous avons trouvé un mouton*; *nous nous sommes trouvés*; and so on. But in the *Imperative Mode* there is a further change; thus:

trouve un mouton,
trouve-toi,
qu'il trouve un mouton,
qu'il se trouve.
trouvons un mouton,
trouvons-nous,
trouvez un mouton,
trouvez-vous,
qu'ils trouvent un mouton,
qu'ils se trouvent,

find a sheep.
 find thyself.
 let him find a sheep.
 let him find himself.
 let us find a sheep.
 let us find ourselves.
 find a sheep.
 find yourself, or selves.
 let them find a sheep.
 let them find themselves.

The INFINITIVE is *S'êtré trouvé*: the ACTIVE PARTICIPLE, *S'étant trouvé*.

I will give you some of the above phrases *word for word*, as nearly as possible; and, strange as they appear at first, you will, at last, find them natural enough. As far as the verb *avoir* goes, we think all

natural; but, when we come to the verb *être*, we think all out of place.

je me suis trouvé,
je m'étais trouvé,
je me serais trouvé,
trouve-toi,
qu'il se trouve,
trouvons-nous,
trouvez-vous,

I me am found.
 I me was found.
 I me should be found.
 find thou thee.
 that he himself find.
 find we us.
 find you you.

This appears monstrous; but, consider it well, and you will find that the *me* in the French means, in this case, *myself* as the doer of the deed; and that, the fair and full meaning in English, is, I, *of myself*, or by my own act, *am found, was found, shall be found*, and so on. Then, *as trouve*, in the imperative, means *find thou*, *trouve-toi* is *find thou thee*, which is no more than *find thyself*. And, if we find it a *fault* in the French language that it requires *find we us*, instead of, *let us find ourselves*, the French will tell us that the fault is in *our* mode of expression, and not in theirs. *Je me suis trouvé* is, in good English, *I have found myself*. Word for word, this would be, in French, *j'ai trouvé moi-même*; but this would be bad French; or rather, it would be no French at all, any more than *I me am found* is English.

133. I have before observed, that the Reflected Verbs are denoted, in the Dictionary, by *Se* being put before them. I have also observed, that any *active verb*, expressing an action done to the actor, or confined to the actor, may, as in the case of *trouver*, become a reflected verb. But, besides these, there are several *neuter verbs*, which must be conjugated with *être*, and not with *avoir*; though this is not the case with *neuter verbs in general*. Let us take our *hawk* again in the

way of illustration. *Tuer*, to kill, is an *active* verb, as we will here use it. *Se percher* (to perch) is a *reflected* verb. But *jucher* (to roost) is a *neuter* verb. Now, then, speaking of a hawk, we say,

il a tué un moineau,	he <i>has</i> killed a sparrow.
il s'est perché sur l'arbre,	he <i>has</i> perched on the tree.
il a juché sur l'arbre,	he <i>has</i> roosted on the tree.

The distinction here, though very *nice*, is very clear, and must, if you attend to it, explain the whole matter of reflected verbs. To *perch* on a tree includes an *act* which the hawk does with regard to himself; but the *roosting* is totally void of all action. It is an inactive, a *neutral* state of being; and, therefore, the verb which describes that state is called a *neuter verb*, and is, in its compound times, conjugated with *avoir*, and not with *être*.

134. There are, however, some few *neuter* verbs, which are conjugated with *être* and not with *avoir*; but, you will find a list of these when you come to the Syntax on the Times of Verbs. *Sortir* (to go out) is, for instance, one of these *neuter* verbs; as, *je suis sorti*, I have (that is, literally, *am*) gone out; and not *j'ai sorti*, I *have* gone out. However, I put off, for the present, this list, and the details on the subject, in order to avoid, as much as possible, giving interruption to this series of principles and rules, which ought to have a constant connection in your mind as you proceed.

135. There is one thing more belonging to *reflected* verbs; and that is, they have sometimes *entre* used with them. *Entre* means, literally, *between* or *amongst*; as, *entre nous* (between ourselves), when there are *two* of us only. Where there are more, we say, in English,

amongst ourselves; but the French say, *entre nous*, whether there be two or more than two. This *entre* is a preposition which generally means *between* or *amongst*: *entre deux*, between two; *entre trois*, amongst three. Now, this preposition is used frequently with reflected verbs; and, to make, in some sort, a part of the verbs themselves; as, *S'entre tuer*, to *kill one another*. This is when there are two parties acting, and acting with reciprocity, *on each other*. [In which case the verb so used is by some grammarians called a *reciprocal* verb.] In speaking of two men, we say, *ils s'entre tuent*, they kill one another. When *entre* is thus used, it makes no difference at all in the manner of conjugating the verb. The *entre* is prefixed to the verb, and that is all; as:

<i>nous nous entre-tuons,</i>		we kill one another.
<i>nous nous entre-tûions,</i>		we killed one another.
<i>ils s'entre-tuent,</i>		they kill one another.
<i>ils s'entre-tuaient.</i>		they killed one another.

Then in the compound times, where we make use of *to have*, they make use of *to be*; as:

<i>nous nous sommes entre-tués,</i>		we have killed one another.
<i>nous nous étions entre tués,</i>		we had killed one another.
<i>ils se sont entre-tués.</i>		they have killed one another.
<i>ils s'étaient entre-tués,</i>		they had killed one another.

And in this way goes on the conjugation of any and every verb with *entre*. [As with *s'entre donner*, to give to each other; *s'entr'aider*, to help one another; *s'entr'aimer*, to love one another; *s'entre ruiner*, to ruin one another.] Sometimes the same thing is expressed in another way; as, *ils se tuent l'un l'autre*. This also means, *they kill one another*; and it would seem to be tautology; for it says, *ils se tuent*, which is, *they kill themselves*; and then comes *l'un l'autre*, which means, *one another*; so that they kill *themselves* and *one another*

also, which would seem to be a little more than is possible. However, this sort of phrase is in *common use*, and that is enough for us. Though it may be bad philosophy, it is perfectly *good French*; and that is what we have to look after.

136. There remains now, with regard to the *Etymology of Verbs*, nothing to be done but to notice a particular manner of using certain verbs only in the third person singular. When used in this manner, they are called, by some grammarians, *Impersonal verbs*; because they are here used only in the *third person singular*. AVOIR, ÊTRE, and some other words, are used in this way; and, for want of one more appropriate, we may as well use the appellation *impersonal*: for an appellation of some sort they must have.

137. *Avoir* is the principal one of these impersonals; and, in this its capacity, it is always used with *il y*; which, thus used, mean, in English, *it there*. Let us, then, see how this impersonal is used. *Il y a un faucon sur l'arbre*. You know that *a* means *has*. So that, word for word, this phrase is, *it there has* a hawk on the tree; though we say, *there is* a hawk on the tree. If you ask, what business the *il* (it) has there, the French might ask you what business the *it* has in our *it rains*, *it snows*, *it freezes*. And, if you think it a sort of nonsense to say, *il y a un faucon sur l'arbre*, I assure you that the French would think you downright mad if you were to say *y est un faucon sur l'arbre*. The verb *avoir*, when used in this way, ought, indeed, to be called *y avoir*; for that little word really makes a part of it, and with it the verb is conjugated, precisely as in paragraph 125; only it is confined to the third person singular; as:

il y a un faucon,
il y avait un faucon,
il y eut un faucon,
il y aura un faucon,
il y ait un faucon,
il y aurait un faucon,
il y eût un faucon,
il y ayant un faucon,

there is a hawk.
 there was a hawk.
 there was a hawk.
 there shall be a hawk.
 there may be a hawk.
 there should be a hawk.
 there might be a hawk.
 there being a hawk.

It goes through the compound times also; as, *il y a eu un faucon*, *there has been* a hawk; and so on.—[It should be observed, that although the “third person singular” only is here mentioned, the author afterwards, in paragraph 352, explains how the impersonal is used in reference to persons and things in the plural also.]

138. ÊTRE is called *impersonal*, when it is used thus: *il est rare de voir un faucon dans la ville*; *it is rare* to see a hawk in the town. This is according to our own manner; and, therefore, we need not bestow any more time upon it here. Sometimes the pronoun *ce* is used, in such cases, instead of *il*; as, *c'est rare*: but we need say no more of that at present; because, when we come to the Syntax of Impersonals, which we shall in Letter XXI., we shall have a great deal to say about *il est*, *c'est*.

139. But, there is the Impersonal *Falloir* (to be necessary), which is a verb of very great importance. It, in most cases, performs the office of our word *must*; but it does *more* than that in some cases. The uses of this word constitute one of the great characteristics of the French idiom, viewed in comparison with our idiom. The infinitive *Falloir* (to be necessary) is out of use. It is never used. The *active* participle is also out of use; but it has its passive participle in use. With these exceptions it is a verb that goes through

all the *Modes* and *Times* in the third person singular;

<i>il faut,</i>	it is necessary.
<i>il fallait,</i>	it was necessary.
<i>il fallut,</i>	it was necessary.
<i>il faudra,</i>	it will be necessary.
<i>il faille,</i>	it may be necessary.
<i>il faudrait,</i>	it should be necessary.
<i>il fallût,</i>	it might be necessary.
<i>il a fallu,</i>	it has been necessary.

This is the *word-for-word* translation. We might use *requisite*, *needful*, or any other word or words expressive of what *ought* to take place. Our *should* frequently answers the purpose. But *must* is our great word in these cases; and here the turn of the two languages is wholly different. This difference requires the greatest attention: but this will be fully explained in the *Syntax*, my business here being to show how the French verbs change their forms, and to explain to you the reasons for those changes. Let me, however, just give you an example or two with *must*, and let us adhere to our verb *trouver*:

<i>il faut que je le trouve aujourd'hui,</i>	I must find him to-day.
<i>il fallait que je le trouvasse hier,</i>	I must find him yesterday.
<i>il faudra que je le trouve demain,</i>	I must find him to-morrow.

These three French phrases, literally translated, are as follows:

<i>il faut que je le trouve aujourd'hui,</i>	it is necessary that I may find him to-day.
<i>il fallait que je le trouvasse hier,</i>	it was necessary that I might find him yesterday.
<i>il faudra que je le trouve demain,</i>	it is necessary that I may find him to-morrow.

So that, you see, there is no single *word* in French that answers to our *must*. The same meaning is expressed, but it is expressed in another manner. You will

observe, that this verb, *il faut*, forms its compound times like another verb; as, *il a fallu*; it *has been* necessary.

140. There are several other verbs which, for the reason before-mentioned, are usually called *impersonal*; such as *pleuvoir* (to rain), *geler* (to freeze), *tonner* (to thunder). But there is no difficulty belonging to these; for the French say, *il gèle*, *il tonne*, just as we say, *it freezes*, *it thunders*. As to *rain*, indeed, they generally say, *il tombe de la pluie*, it falls of the rain, or, in good English, *rain is falling*. But these are matters that properly belong to the Syntax. *Il fait*, which means, *it makes*, is one of the impersonals; but it is also part of the verb *faire* (to make), and will be found fully conjugated in its proper place. As impersonal, however, it goes through all the *Modes* and *Times*; and it is in such common use, and this use is so strongly characteristic of the difference between the two languages, that I must give you an example here. Speaking of the weather, the French say:

<i>il fait beau,</i>	it makes fine.
<i>il jesuit beau,</i>	it made fine.
<i>il fit beau,</i>	it made fine.
<i>il fera beau,</i>	it will make fine.

We, in English, do not say, *makes*, *made*, and *will make*; we say, *is*, *was*, *will be*. But we are not to find *fault* with the French on this account. If examined closely, their mode of expression is just as reasonable as ~~ours~~ *ours*. At any rate, they do and will say, *il fait beau*; and it is for us to learn to say it too.

141. Thus I put an end to my Letter on the *Etymology of Verbs*. It is full of matter requiring great attention. You will have observed, that its principal

object is, to teach you how to make the several *changes in the forms* of the verbs, according to the several circumstances of *person, number, time and mode*. You will, by-and-by, when I have gone through the Etymology of the Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions, find the Conjugations of the Verbs at full length, and with all the details. But before you proceed even to the Etymology of Adverbs, I wish you to become very perfect in your knowledge of the contents of this letter. Write the verb *Trouver* down, in all its Modes, Times, Numbers, and Persons, till it becomes as familiar to you as your fingers are. Do the same with regard to the verbs AVOIR and ÊTRE; for one or the other of them appears in almost every sentence that you see in any book. To fix a thing in your memory, there is nothing like *making it with your hand*. A perfect familiarity with *Trouver* will make you master of the changes belonging to about *eight-ninths* of the whole of the French verbs; and a similar familiarity with *avoir* and *être* will go far towards removing every difficulty with regard to the verbs. Let me, therefore, beg of you to secure this important point before you proceed any further.

LETTER X.

ETYMOLOGY OF ADVERBS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

142. In paragraph 37 I explained to you why the words belonging to this part of speech are called *Adverbs*. You will, of course, now read that paragraph again. Having read it, you will want nothing more to inform you of the *nature* and *use* of the words of this part of speech.

143. Adverbs undergo *no changes of form*, like the parts of speech which we have heretofore had to do with. Therefore this sort of words will not detain us long. The main part of our English adverbs end in *LY*; as, *happily*, *shortly*. They are formed, in most cases, from adjectives, as in these two instances, from *happy* and *short*. It is nearly the same in the French, except that, instead of *ly* they add *ment*; as, *heureusement* (happily), *courtement* (shortly); from *heureux* (happy), and *courte* (short).

144. The Syntax will teach us how to place and employ Adverbs in sentences: here we have only to ascertain how the Adverbs themselves are formed, and what connection they have with other words. And as to this matter, there are a few observations to make:

FIRST. The general rule is, to add *ment* to the adjective to make it an adverb; as, *brave*, *brave-ment*; but, if the adjective end in *é* (with an accent, mind), or in *i* or *u*, it is to the *masculine* of the adjective that the *ment* is added. Adjec-

tives ending in *e* mute are, as you have before seen, for both genders; and the *ment* is merely added to them to form the adverb. When the adjective ends in a *consonant*, the adverb is formed by adding *ment* to the *feminine* of it. The following five words will suffice in the way of example. I shall give the English of the Adverb only:

ADJECTIVES.		ADVERBS.	
Masc.	Fem.		
<i>aisé,</i>	<i>aisée,</i>	<i>aisément,</i>	easily.
<i>joli,</i>	<i>jolie,</i>	<i>joliment,</i>	prettily.
<i>goulu,</i>	<i>goulue,</i>	<i>goulument,</i>	gluttonously.
<i>vite,</i>	<i>vite,</i>	<i>vitement,</i>	quickly.
<i>dur,</i>	<i>dure,</i>	<i>durement,</i>	hardly.

This taking the feminine, and not the masculine, of the adjective, whereon to form the adverb, is particularly to be observed in those cases where the masculine differs widely in form from the feminine; as, *franc*, *franche*; *doux*, *douce*; *heureux*, *heureuse*; for here it must be, not *francement*, but *franchement*, *doucement*, *heureusement*. To the above rule there are, however, a few exceptions. The following adjectives, though ending with a *consonant*, or with *u*, take an *é*, *î*, or *û* before the *ment*:

ADJECTIVES.	ADVERBS.	
<i>Exprès,</i>	<i>expressément,</i>	expressly.
<i>confus,</i>	<i>confusément,</i>	confusedly.
<i>précis,</i>	<i>précisément,</i>	precisely.
<i>commun,</i>	<i>communément,</i>	commonly.
<i>importun,</i>	<i>importunément,</i>	importunately.
<i>obscur,</i>	<i>obscurément,</i>	obscurely.
<i>profond,</i>	<i>profondément,</i>	deeply.
<i>gentil,</i>	<i>gentiment,</i>	genteelly.
<i>eperdu,</i>	<i>eperdument,</i>	desperately.
<i>ingénu,</i>	<i>ingénument,</i>	ingenuously.
<i>dû,</i>	<i>dûment,</i>	duly.
<i>assidu,</i>	<i>assidûment,</i>	assiduously.

A further exception is, that the following adjectives,

though ending in *e* mute, do not, like *vite*, which becomes *vitement*, keep the *e* mute in forming the adverb; but change the *e* mute into an *é* acute:

ADJECTIVES.

Aveugle,
commode,
conforme,
énorme,

ADVERBS.

aveuglément,
commodément,
conformément,
énormément,

blindly.
commodiously.
conformably.
enormously.

The words *derived* from any of these follow the same rule, *incommodément*, which is derived from *incommode*, and that from *commode*.—For *unpunished*, or *with impunity*, the French have *impunément*, though the adjective is *impuni*.

SECOND. When the adjectives end in *ant* and *ent*, they form the adverbs by changing the *ant* into *amment* and the *ent* into *emment*; as, *indépendant* (independent), *indépendamment* (independently), *prudent* (prudent), *prudemment* (prudently). To this rule there are two exceptions. *Lent* (slow) makes *lentement*, and *présent* (present) makes *présentement*.

145. As to the other adverbs, I mean such as are not derived from, or made out of adjectives, they are words of themselves, and, like other words, are to be sought for in the Dictionary. There are, perhaps, a hundred of them. For inserting a list of them here there can be no reason which would not be a reason for inserting the whole of the nouns and adjectives and of all the other parts of speech. We ought to do nothing without a reason, and to swell the bulk of a book, less, perhaps, than almost any other thing. An adverb is a word that *never changes its form* on account of person, number, gender, time, or any other circumstance. It is always composed of the same letters; and,

therefore, there need not be much time employed upon explanations relative to this Part of Speech. The French adverbs differ widely from ours; they are used in a manner very different from that in which ours are used; but they cannot all be put into the head at once: they and their several uses must be learned by translating, by writing, by speaking, by reading them in books, as they occur, and not by attempting to know them all at once by arranging them and reading them in *lists*.

146. There are Adverbs of *time, place, order, quality*, and of *manner*; but any classification of them would be useless, because they undergo no changes. There are *Nouns* of *time, place, order*, and the rest; but we do not class them as *such*, because they undergo *no changes* to suit these various circumstances. The *negatives* are of this part of speech; and the use of them is a great matter; but they never change their form; they cannot be used without other words; and, in fact, all relating to them is to be learned when we come to employ them in sentences. The manner of using *negatives* is a great matter, and it will be treated of in a separate Letter. A whole Letter (XX.) will be devoted to *negative* and *interrogative* sentences.

147. The French, like the English, have two or three Adverbs that may be said to have *degrees of comparison*. We have, in English, *well*, which becomes *better*, and *best*. The French have *bien* (well), *mieux* (better), *le mieux* (the best). They have also *mal* (badly), *pis* (worse), *le pis* (the worst). They have *peu* (little or few), *moins* (less), *le moins* (the least). We have *often*, which becomes *oftener* and *oftenest*. But they say *souvent*, *plus souvent*, *le plus souvent*. These

irregularities are, however, very few in number; and, as they are confined to words which frequently occur in almost every page of every book, and in every conversation of any considerable length, they very soon cease to present any thing like a difficulty to the learner.

148. It may be necessary to observe here, that an adverb sometimes consists of *more than one word*. It is then called a *compound* adverb. We have the same thing in English; but it may be useful to explain the matter. *Lately*, for instance, is a *simple* adverb; but *little-by-little* is a compound. In French it is much about the same. For *lately* they have *dernièrement*, and for *little-by-little* they have *petit-à-petit*; that is to say, word for word, *little-to-little*; which, odd as it sounds, has a sense in it more evident than is the sense in our adverb. Sometimes, however, the French adverb is a compound when ours is not: as, *tout-à-coup*, which means *suddenly*, and, word for word, *all-at-a-stroke*, or at a *hit*. And indeed we sometimes say, *all-of-a-sudden*, instead of *suddenly*. Sometimes ours is a compound, when the French is not: as, *now-a-days*, which they express by *aujourd'hui*. Thus you see there are, in many cases, several words that go to the making up of one adverb. In our *now-a-days*, for instance, there is the adverb *now*; then there is the *a* (meaning in this case *at*); then there is the noun *days*. You will bear this in mind. Though there are *several words*, and of different parts of speech too, they make but *one adverb*.

149. Sometimes, both in French and in English, the words that are used to make a compound adverb are connected by a *hyphen* or *hyphens*: as, *now-a-days* and *tout-à-l'heure*. But this is not always the case. For

instance, *avec le temps*, and *in time*, which latter expresses the meaning of the former, are compound adverbs; and yet we do not connect by hyphens the words that compose them. *In the meanwhile* is really no more than a compound adverb, and yet we do not use the hyphens in writing it. This adverb is translated into French by the single word *cependant*. And it is, if we look into the matter, curious to observe, how fully this *one* word contains the meaning of our *four* words. It is *ce* and *pendant*; that is to say, *this* and *during*; that is to say, *during this*; that is to say, *in the mean, or middle, while, or time*.

150. There are some *Adjectives* which are used as *Adverbs*; and this is the case in both languages; as, *parler bas*, to speak *low*; that is to say, in a *low voice*. This is not frequently the case; and, perhaps, we use this way of speaking when we ought not. We often use the word *bad*, when we ought to use *badly*. The French say *voir double* (to see *double*), and so do we; but, strictly speaking, this *double* is not an adverb so much as it is an *adjective* and a *noun*; for it means *double things*. However, there are not many words used in this way; and you will soon become acquainted with them all.

151. I cannot conclude this Letter, without observing to you, that words which, in some cases, are adverbs, are, in other cases, not adverbs. For instance, *the inside*, when thus written, is a *noun*, though *inside* is, in some cases, an *adverb*. It is the same with the French, who say, *le dedans* (the inside), *le dehors* (the outside), and so on, just as we do. This circumstance was noticed in paragraphs 42 and 43, which you ought to look at again.

LETTER XI.

ETYMOLOGY OF PREPOSITIONS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

152. In paragraph. 38, I explained to you why words of this sort were called *Prepositions*. The chief use of the words of this part of speech is, to express the different *relations* and *connections* which Nouns have with each other, or in which Nouns stand with regard to each other: the hawk sits *upon* the tree, the hawk flies *to* the tree, the hawk flies down *from* the tree, the hawk flies *over* the tree.

153. Prepositions *never change their form*, so that there are none of those difficulties attending them which we find in the Articles, Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Verbs, which change their forms so many times. For instance, *sur* (upon) is always *sur*, whether it be before a noun masculine, or a noun feminine, or before a singular or a plural. Let me here, however, make a remark or two with regard to *à* and *de*. The first of these answers to our *to*, and the last to our *of*. Each has different meanings under different circumstances; but, generally speaking, our *to* and *of* are translated by these words; as, I send ten *of* my sheep *to* the farm. J'envoie dix *de* mes moutons *à* la ferme. But I have here to call your recollection to what was said in paragraphs 79 to 86, and to beg of you to read, *before you go any further*, the whole of these eight paragraphs carefully through. You will,

doubtless, have done this already; but you must now do it again.

154. Here you see, then, that *à* and *de* are, in French, sometimes *united* with the *definite article*. This, however, is the case with regard to no other of the prepositions. To be sure, the article, thus united with these prepositions, is a thing of most extensive use in the language. Scarcely a sentence can you write without using it in some one or other of its forms; but this is, in fact, an advantage in the learning of its use. The *de* becomes *d'* when it is immediately followed by a word beginning with a *vowel* or with an *h* mute; but this is, in fact, *no change in the form* of the word. It is merely an abbreviation, made for the purpose of obtaining fullness of sound.

155. In this part of speech, as well as in the Adverbs, there are sometimes *more than one word*; that is to say, one preposition contains more than one word; as, *vis-à-vis*, which, in English, is *over-against*. But, sometimes, the Preposition, like the Adverb, is simple in one of the languages and compound in the other. For instance: *par dessous* (under); *selon* (according to). The same word is, as was before observed, sometimes of one part of speech and sometimes of another; and this is very frequently the case with these parts of speech, which have *no variation in the forms* of the words. But this is a matter of little consequence; you will soon learn to distinguish one part of speech from the other. I hope, indeed, that you have nearly done this already.

156. One of the chief things belonging to Prepositions is that which is called their *governing*. They are said to *govern* nouns and pronouns; that is to say, to

cause them to be in the *objective case*. You must now look back to paragraphs 72 to 76. Then go to paragraph 91. Read these all carefully over again now; and when you have done that, you will find that the Prepositions *govern*, in certain cases, the nouns and pronouns.

157. The main thing of all, however, to be observed on, under this head, is the *different application* of the prepositions in the two languages. *To*, as we have seen, is generally expressed in French by *à*. But when this *à* is used with the verb *to think* (*penser*), for instance, it is not expressed in English by *to*. For example, the French say, *je pense à ma santé*; that is to say, word for word, I think *to* my health. But we say, I think *of* my health. Now, if you reflect a little here, you will find that this French phrase is by no means unreasonable; for it is, in its fullness, this: I apply my thinking *to* my health. And our English phrase means: I think, or use my thinking faculties about things *concerning* my health, or *of*, or *belonging to*, my health. The *meaning*, when you come to examine the thing well, is the same; the mode of expression only is different; but this difference must be very carefully attended to; for, though I think *of* my health is good English, *je pense de ma santé* is not French at all, any more than, I think *to* my health is English.

158. It is the same with regard to the use of many other Prepositions. For example, we say, I play *on* the flute; but the French say, *je joue de la flûte*; that is to say, I play *of* the flute. We say, *to enjoy a thing*: the French say, *jouir d'une chose*; that is, to enjoy *of* a thing. We say, *near a thing*, or *near to*: they say,

ès d'une chose; that is, near *of* a thing. *Près de la ville*; near to the town. *Près de dix mois*; nearly, or near *to*, ten months. *Near of ten months* seems to be nonsense; but it is not; it means near to the number *of* ten months; or, near to the quantity *of* time that makes up ten months. The meaning, when you come closely to examine into the matter, is the same in both languages; the *manner* of expressing that meaning is very different; and this difference must be strictly attended to.

159. In this respect the *Preposition* is, in the learning of French, an important part of speech; because, though it never changes its form, it is used in a manner so very different, in many cases, from that in which it is used in English. The Syntax will show more fully this difference, which, as I have just said, is a very important matter.—See Paragraph 453.

160. Prepositions are not, like Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, and Adverbs, a very *numerous* class of words. I shall, therefore, give a *list* of the greater part of them here, divided into two parts. There are some of the Prepositions which are directly followed by the Noun or Pronoun; and others which must have the preposition *de* before the next Noun or Pronoun. I shall divide them according to this difference in the manner of using them. I shall also give the English of each phrase. Observe, that the French *de* answers to our *from* as well as *of*. Observe, also, that when I say that the following prepositions are *immediately* followed by the noun or pronoun that they govern, I do not mean to shut out the *Article*, for it, in fact, makes a part of the noun. Nor do I mean to exclude the possessive pronoun. Il est à la foire; il est DANS sa chambre.

You must never forget, that the same assemblage of letters may, in some cases, be a *preposition*, and, at other times, may not be a preposition. Indeed, this has been pointed out to you so many times, that the doing of it here may seem to be useless; but it is a thing that you cannot be too well acquainted with.

List of Prepositions which are immediately followed by the Noun or Pronoun to which they apply.

<i>à,</i>	at or to.
<i>après</i>	after.
<i>à travers,</i>	through.
<i>attendu,</i>	considering, on account of.
<i>avant,</i>	before.
<i>avec,</i>	with.
<i>chez,</i>	at or to.
<i>concernant,</i>	about.
<i>contre,</i>	against.
<i>dans,</i>	in.
<i>de,</i>	of or from.
<i>de dessus,</i>	from above.
<i>de dessous,</i>	from under.
<i>depuis,</i>	since.
<i>derrière,</i>	behind.
<i>dès,</i>	from.
<i>devant,</i>	before.
<i>durant,</i>	during.
<i>en,</i>	in.
<i>entre,</i>	between.
<i>envers,</i>	to or towards.
<i>environ,</i>	about.
<i>excepté,</i>	except.
<i>hormis,</i>	excepting.
<i>hors,</i>	but or except.
<i>malgré,</i>	in spite of.
<i>moynant,</i>	for, by means of.
<i>nonobstant,</i>	notwithstanding.
<i>outré,</i>	besides.
<i>par,</i>	by.
<i>par dessus,</i>	above.
<i>par dessous,</i>	under or below.
<i>par deçà,</i>	on this side.
<i>par delà,</i>	on that side.
<i>parmi,</i>	among.

pendant,
pour,
sans,
sans,
selon,
sous,
suivant,

touchant,
vers,
vu,

during.
for.
without.
save.
according to.
under.
according to.
upon.
touching.
towards, about.
seeing.

List of Prepositions which must have the Preposition DE immediately after them, or that Preposition, united with the Article, when it becomes DU or DES.

à cause,
à couvert,
au-deçà,
au-delà,
au-dessus,
au-dessous,
au-devant,
au-derrrière,
à côté,
à fleur,
à retour,
aux dépens,
à force,
aux environs,
au grand regret,
à l'égard,
à l'insçu,
à l'exception,
à moins,
à la réserve,
à l'abri,
à l'entour,
à l'exclusion,
à l'opposite,
au lieu,
à la faveur,
à la mode,
au moyen,
au milieu,
au niveau,
auprès,
au prix,

because of.
sheltered from.
on this side of.
on the other side of.
above.
below.
before.
behind.
by, beside.
near the edge of.
against, in return.
at the expense.
by strength of.
near about.
to the great regret of.
as to.
unknown to.
excepted.
for less, or under.
reserving only, excepting.
secure from.
round about.
excluding.
opposite to.
instead of.
by favour of.
after the manner of.
by means.
in the middle of.
even with.
by, near.
at the expense of.

<i>au péril,</i>	at the peril of.
<i>au risque,</i>	at the risk.
<i>à raison,</i>	at the rate.
<i>rez de terre,</i>	level with the ground.
<i>au travers,</i>	through.
<i>en dépit,</i>	in spite.
<i>pour l'amour,</i>	for the sake.
<i>vis-à-vis,</i>	over-against.

Besides the above, there are three or four that require à before the succeeding Noun or Pronoun. These are *jusque* (as far as), which is written *jusqu'* because the à follows; as, *jusqu' à la rivière: as far as the river.* *Pur rapport à sa maison: with respect to his house.* *Quant à son argent: as for his money.*

161. Before you go further, it will be well for you to read over several times these lists of Prepositions. Copy them, that is to say, write them down, many times over; so that you may not only know them again as soon as they meet your eye; but that you may be able to write them *correctly*, with all their *hyphens*, *elisions*, and *accents*; for these are of as much importance as are the *letters* of which the words are composed. Let it be your constant habit to write in a *plain* hand. The *best* hand-writing is that which is the *easiest to read*; that which can be the most easily read by the greatest number of persons. Take care to put all the *marks* and *accents*; for though Frenchmen, when they write, seldom do it, they ought to do it; and, in your case, the omission would, and must, retard your learning; for the omission really makes, in many cases, nonsense of the whole thing that you are writing. DÈS is *from the time*, and DES is *of the*, or *some*. Then again, A is *has*, and À is *to*. The LA is *the*, and the LÀ is *there*. This is sufficient to show how necessary it is not to omit accents. Besides, all writing ought to be

correct in all its parts; and as there is, in this case, nothing but mere attention required of you, not to do the thing properly would argue that sort of disposition which, I am sure, will never be discovered in my dear Richard. If you have a *teacher*, these lists are excellent things as *reading lessons*. They contain words that are seen in every sentence, and that you cannot open your mouth without using. But, whether you have a teacher or not, write these lists down several times over.

LETTER XII.

ETYMOLOGY OF CONJUNCTIONS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

162. The reason why words of this part of speech are called *Conjunctions*, has been given you in paragraph 39. They *connect*, or *conjoin*, or *join together*, words and sentences. They, like adverbs and prepositions, *never change their form*; and are, therefore, not attended with any particular difficulty.

163. Some of them are called *copulative* and others *disjunctive*; the former *couple* nouns and pronouns together in sense as well as in place; as, the field *and* the house *are* sold. The others *disjoin* them in the sense; as, the field is sold, *but* the house is not. There is, perhaps, no great practical utility in this distinction; but it being a distinction usually made, I have just noticed it. Some teachers of Grammar divide Conjunctions into six or seven classes; but this is of *no use*, and, therefore, I avoid it.

164. A thing much more useful than this is, to observe, that the *same word* is sometimes a Conjunction, sometimes an Adverb, and sometimes a Preposition. It is the *sense* in which the word is used that determines the part of speech to which it belongs. Some of the Conjunctions are simple; as, *comme* (as), and some compound; as, *au lieu de* (instead of). A phrase of considerable length is frequently no more than *one Conjunction*: as, *posez le cas que*, which may be translated into English by the simple word *suppose*.

POSER is to *lay down*. So that the whole of the phrase means this: *lay down the case that*. We, for instance, say, in English, *suppose that* the enemy declare war. The French say, *posez les cas que l'ennemi déclare la guerre*. But they can say, as well as we, *supposez que*. And we can say, as well as they, *suppose the case that*.

165. When a Conjunction, an Adverb, or a Preposition, consists of *several words*, you must take care how you give to each of the words the meaning which it would have in its distinct state. They sometimes have this meaning, but they more frequently have not. For instance, we have in English this Conjunction, *as well as*, and we use it thus: I was drunk *as well as* you. But what is there *well* here? Here is something very *bad*, but nothing at all *well*. We know that these three words, taken together, mean *in like manner with*, or, *in like degree with*. But when we find, in French, *aussi bien que*, we are apt to give to each word its separate meaning, and then they are, *also well that*, which is not their meaning. They mean the same as our *as well as*.

166. I shall now insert the principal part of the Conjunctions in alphabetical order, with the English against each.

<i>à cause que,</i>	because.
<i>à cause de,</i>	because of.
<i>à condition que,</i>	on condition that.
<i>à dire vrai,</i>	to speak the truth.
<i>afin que,</i>	to the end that.
<i>afin de,</i>	in order to.
<i>ainsi,</i>	thus, therefore, accordingly, so.
<i>ainsi que,</i>	like, likewise.
<i>à peine,</i>	hardly, scarcely.
<i>après que,</i>	after.
<i>après cela,</i>	after that.
<i>après tout,</i>	after all, upon the whole.
<i>à propos,</i>	by-the-by.

à quel propos,
à moins que, or de,
à la vérité,
attendu que,
au cas que,
aussi,
aussi bien que,
au lieu de,
autant que,
au reste,
aussitôt que,
avant que,
avant de,
avant que de,
bien entendu que,
bien loin de,
bien que,
car,
c'est-à-dire,
c'est pour quoi,
c'est à dire que,
c'est pour,
cela que,
cela étant,
cela étant ainsi,
ce n'est pas que,
cependant,
comme,
comme si,
comme par exemple,
d'accord,
d'ailleurs,
d'autant que,
d'autant plus que,
de l'autre côté,
de manière que,
de même que,
de même,
de plus,
depuis,
depuis que,
dès que,
de sorte que,
d'où vient-il que,
donc,
en attendant,
en attendant que,

}

wherefore, or to what end.
 unless.

indeed, in truth.

whereas, seeing that.

in case that.

also.

as well as.

instead of.

as much as.

as for the rest.

as soon as.

before.

it being understood that.

far from, so far from.

though.

for.

that is to say.

therefore.

that is to say that.

it is for.

that that.

that being the case.

it being thus.

not but.

however, in the meanwhile.

as, whereas.

as if, as though.

as for example.

done, agreed.

• besides, otherwise.

for as much as, whereas, because.

so much the more as.

on the other hand.

in such manner that.

as, just as.

in like manner.

moreover, besides.

since.

• since that.

from the time that.

so that.

whence comes it that.

then, therefore.

in the meantime.

• till, until that.

<i>en cas que,</i>		in case that.	
<i>encore que,</i>		although, besides that.	
<i>en effet,</i>		in effect, indeed.	
<i>enfin,</i>		finally, at last.	
<i>en tant que,</i>		as, inasmuch as.	
<i>en tout cas,</i>		however, let it be as it will.	
<i>ensuite,</i>		then, afterwards.	
<i>en un mot,</i>		in a word,	
<i>et,</i>		and.	
<i>et puis,</i>		and besides.	
<i>il est vrai que,</i>		it is true that.	
<i>j'en conviens,</i>		I grant it.	
<i>joint que,</i>		add to that that.	
<i>mais,</i>		but.	
<i>mais aussi,</i>		but also.	
<i>mais encore,</i>		but besides.	
<i>mais même,</i>		but even.	
<i>même,</i>		even.	
<i>mal à propos,</i>		out of place.	
<i>néanmoins,</i>		nevertheless.	
<i>ni,</i>		nor, neither.	
<i>ni plus ni moins,</i>		neither more nor less.	
<i>nonobstant que,</i>		notwithstanding that.	
<i>non plus,</i>		neither.	
<i>non plus que,</i>		no more than.	
<i>non que, non pas que,</i>		not but.	
<i>non seulement,</i>		not only.	
<i>ou, or ou bien,</i>		or else.	
<i>outre cela,</i>	}	besides that.	
<i>outre que,</i>			
<i>purce que,</i>		because.	
<i>par conséquent,</i>		consequently.	
<i>par quelle raison,</i>		for what reason.	
<i>pendant que,</i>		whilst.	
<i>posez le cas que,</i>		put the case that.	
<i>pour cet effet,</i>		for this purpose.	
<i>pour conclusion,</i>		to conclude.	
<i>pour lors,</i>		then.	
<i>pour quoi,</i>		why, wherefore.	
<i>pourvu que,</i>		provided that.	
<i>puis,</i>		then.	
<i>quand,</i>	}	though, although.	
<i>quand même,</i>			
<i>quand bien même,</i>		although.	
<i>quoique,</i>		however it may be.	
<i>quoiqu'il en soit,</i>	{	be the consequence what it will.	

<i>sans, sans que,</i>		without.
<i>sans doute,</i>		without doubt.
<i>sans mentir,</i>		truly, with truth.
<i>savoir,</i>		to wit.
<i>si,</i>		if, whether.
<i>si bien que,</i>		insomuch that.
<i>si ce n'est que,</i>		except that.
<i>sinon,</i>		if not, or else.
<i>si-tôt que,</i>		as soon as.
<i>supposez que,</i>		suppose that.
<i>sur tout,</i>		above all, especially.
<i>sur quoi,</i>		whereupon.
<i>sur ces entrefaites,</i>	{	in the meanwhile.
<i>tant que,</i>		while these things were a-doing.
<i>tant s'en faut que,</i>		as much as, as many as.
<i>tellement que,</i>		so far from it.
<i>toutefois,</i>		in such a manner that.
<i> toutes les fois que,</i>		yet, for all that.
<i>vu que,</i>		every time that.
		seeing that.

167. Conjunctions govern *modes* of verbs: that is to say, some Conjunctions have *one mode after them*, and some another mode; but the full explanation of this matter must be left till I come to Letter XXVII., in which I shall treat of the *Syntax of Conjunctions*. The above list contains the far greater part of the Conjunctions. You will observe, that many of these words are, as I observed before, sometimes Prepositions and sometimes Adverbs. The words of these two last parts of speech are few in number, compared with the others, the Articles and Pronouns excepted; and, therefore, they may be all written down many times over without much labour. You will observe, that these are words incessantly recurring; that there can hardly ever be a sentence without one or more of them in it; and that the sooner you become acquainted with them all, the better. As I observed in the case of the Prepositions, take care, in writing the words, to put all the *hyphens*, *elisions*, and *accents*.

LETTER XIII.

ON PARSING.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

168. You have now gone through the whole of the *Etymology*. The object of this part of the Grammar has been to teach you to distinguish one sort of words, or part of speech, from each of the others; and also to teach you how to make the several changes in the spelling of the words. The *Syntax*, when you come to it, will teach you how to choose your words in the making of sentences, and also how to place them. As yet you cannot know how to write French correctly; how to make a French sentence; but, before you go any further, I shall give you an *Exercise in Parsing*, which will lead you to *reconsider* what you have learned.

169. To PARSE, is to *put into parts*. It comes from the Latin word *pars*, which means *part*. There is a French word, *parsemer*, which means, *to scatter*, or put asunder. And this word, *to parse*, is used by grammarians to denominate the act of taking the words of a sentence, one by one, and writing against each the *part of speech that it belongs to*. Thus: *I write a letter to you*. I is a personal pronoun; WRITE is a verb; A is an article; LETTER is a noun; TO is a preposition; YOU is a personal pronoun. The same sentence in French would be, *Je vous écris une lettre*. The JE and VOUS are personal pronouns; ÉCRIS is a verb; UNE is an article; LETTRE is a noun; and, you see, there is no

preposition; for in this case *vous* means *to you*. ~~We~~ can say the same thing without the preposition; ~~as,~~ *I write you a letter*. But we cannot say, *I you write a letter*. These latter remarks do not, however, belong to the subject immediately before us, though they may serve to make an opening and to smooth the way to the Syntax. Before you go any further, look again at paragraph 42, and attend well to what you find there. As you proceed in this work of *parsing*, I beg you to *try yourself* in the manner pointed out in paragraph 42.

170. I shall now give you a series of sentences to *parse*. They will be of very simple construction. I shall give the French as well as the English of each sentence. The first sentence I shall parse myself; and you will proceed with the rest, and go patiently through the whole of the sentences, taking word by word, writing them down, and writing against them in the manner that you will find in the example that I am about to give you. You have been told before, that you are never to expect that a phrase, however short it may be, is to be translated from one language into the other, *word for word*. You will now *see* that this is the case. I shall mark these little exercises A, B, C, and so on; in order that I may easily refer you to them, if necessary. When you have gone through one of these little exercises, you ought, where you have any doubt, to look at the Dictionary. It will tell you whether you have done the Exercise properly. But look well at each word before you write against it. Consider well its meaning and the function it performs in this particular case. One exercise done with care is worth a thousand done carelessly.

A. Le Serin est, après le Rossignol, l'oiseau qui chante le mieux, et qui a la voix la plus forte: il apprend aisément, quand il est jeune, à parler, et à siffler des airs de flageolet; ce qu'il fait plus facilement que le Pinçon, et il le fait mieux.

The Canary is, after the Nightingale, the bird which sings the best, and which has the strongest voice: it learns easily, when it is young, to talk, and to whistle tunes of the flageolet; which it does more readily than the Chaffinch, and it does it better.

<i>Le,</i>	Article.	
<i>Serin,</i>	noun.	
<i>est,</i>	verb.	
<i>après,</i>	preposition.	
<i>le,</i>	article.	
<i>Rossignol,</i>	noun.	
<i>l',</i>	article.	
<i>oiseau,</i>	noun.	
<i>qui,</i>	relative pronoun.	
<i>chante,</i>	verb.	
<i>le,</i>	article.	
<i>mieux,</i>	adverb.	
<i>et,</i>	conjunction.	
<i>qui,</i>	relative pronoun.	
<i>a,</i>	verb.	
<i>la,</i>	article.	
<i>voix,</i>	noun.	}
<i>la plus,</i>	adverb.	
<i>forte,</i>	adjective.	
<i>Il,</i>	pronoun.	
<i>apprend,</i>	verb.	
<i>aisément,</i>	adverb.	
<i>quand,</i>	adverb.	
<i>il,</i>	pronoun.	
<i>est,</i>	verb.	
<i>jeune,</i>	adjective.	
<i>à,</i>	preposition.	
<i>parler,</i>	verb.	
<i>et,</i>	conjunction.	
<i>à,</i>	preposition.	
<i>siffler,</i>	verb.	
<i>des,</i>	article united with preposition.	}
<i>airs,</i>	noun.	
<i>de,</i>	preposition.	
<i>flageolet,</i>	noun.	
<i>ce qu',</i>	pronoun.	
<i>il,</i>	pronoun.	

<i>The,</i>	Article.	
<i>Canary,</i>	noun.	
<i>is,</i>	verb.	
<i>after,</i>	preposition.	
<i>the,</i>	article.	
<i>Nightingale,</i>	noun.	
<i>the,</i>	article.	
<i>bird,</i>	noun.	
<i>which,</i>	relative pronoun.	
<i>sings,</i>	verb.	
<i>the,</i>	article.	
<i>best,</i>	adverb.	
<i>and,</i>	conjunction.	
<i>which,</i>	relative pronoun.	
<i>has,</i>	verb.	
<i>the,</i>	article.	
<i>strongest,</i>	adjective.	
<i>voice,</i>	noun.	
<i>It,</i>	pronoun.	
<i>learns,</i>	verb.	
<i>easily,</i>	adverb.	
<i>when,</i>	adverb.	
<i>it,</i>	pronoun.	
<i>is,</i>	verb.	
<i>young,</i>	adjective.	
<i>to,</i>	preposition.	
<i>talk,</i>	verb.	
<i>and,</i>	conjunction.	
<i>to,</i>	preposition.	
<i>whistle,</i>	verb.	
<i>tunes,</i>	noun.	
<i>of,</i>	preposition.	
<i>the,</i>	article.	
<i>flageolet,</i>	noun.	
<i>which,</i>	relative pronoun.	
<i>it,</i>	pronoun.	

<i>fait,</i>	verb.	<i>does,</i>	verb.
<i>plus,</i>	adverb.	<i>more,</i>	adverb.
<i>facilement,</i>	adverb.	<i>readily,</i>	adverb.
<i>que,</i>	conjunction.	<i>than,</i>	conjunction.
<i>le,</i>	article.	<i>the,</i>	article.
<i>Pinçon,</i>	noun.	<i>Chaffinch,</i>	noun.
<i>et,</i>	conjunction.	<i>and,</i>	conjunction.
<i>il,</i>	pronoun.	<i>it,</i>	pronoun.
<i>le,</i>	pronoun.	<i>does,</i>	verb.
<i>fait,</i>	verb.	<i>it,</i>	pronoun.
<i>mieux,</i>	adverb.	<i>better,</i>	adverb.

171. If you examine well the words of these two little pieces of writing, the examination will show you a great deal as to the *difference in the two languages*. Look at the closing parts, for instance. The French say, *il le fait mieux*; that is, *he does it better*; but we say, *it does it better*. The Canary-bird is a *he* in French, and an *it* in English; and you see the French put the words in an *order* very different from that which we employ.

172. Now proceed in the same way with the little pieces of French and English which follow here. They have been selected for their clearness and simplicity. The English and French both are given, in order that you may compare the one with the other. The translation is not elegant, but as literal as it could be made without making the English a sort of *broken English*. Instead of saying, "The Canary-bird is, after the "Nightingale, the bird which sings the best, and "which has the strongest voice:" instead of this, it might have been thus; "Except the Nightingale, the "Canary is the best singing-bird, and has the strongest "voice." This would have been rather *better English*; but in order to make the matter as little difficult as possible for you, the translation has been made, as nearly as I could well make it, word for word; but

But, you see, it is not word for word, even in this simple instance.

173. The way to proceed with the following sentence is precisely that which has been just pointed out in paragraph 170. And let me beg of you not to *shur* this business over, but go patiently through it, writing down, in a plain hand, all the sentences, English as well as French; and when you have *parsed* one of the sentences, examine it by the Dictionary, to see whether what you have done be correctly done. Paragraphs 42 and 43 contain matter which you should now have fresh in your mind. Read, therefore, those two paragraphs again very attentively, and, while you are at your work of parsing, act according to what is stated in those paragraphs; for, unless you attend to that, your parsing cannot be correct, and you will not profit, in the degree you ought to profit, from your labour.

B. C'est du nom Latin, Luciniola, qu'on a formé le nom de Rossignol. Cette étymologie est beaucoup meilleure que toutes celles données sur le nom de cet oiseau.

It is from the Latin name Luciniola that we have formed the name Rossignol. This etymology is much better than all those given on the name of this bird.

C. Le chardonneret est un petit oiseau, qui a le bec de figure conique, blanchâtre. Il est plus petit que le moineau; le sommet de sa tête est noir, ses mâchoires sont blanches, de même que le derrière de sa tête.

The goldfinch is a small bird, which has the beak of a conical shape, and whitish. It is smaller than the sparrow; the top of its head is black, its gills are white, the same as the back of its head.

D. Le chant de l'alouette est très divertissant; il est varié; les bémols et les béquarres s'y distinguent très-bien.

The singing of the lark is very pleasing; it is varied; the Bs flat and the Bs sharp are distinguished in it very easily.

E. Les champs ouverts ont, comme les jardins, leurs fruits particuliers à chaque saison de l'année.

The open fields have, like the gardens, their particular fruits at each season of the year.

F. Les abeilles, ou mouches à miel, sont d'un grand profit à la

Bees are of great use in a house, on account of the honey, the wax,

maison, par le miel, la cire et les essains qu'elles donnent: elles ne coûtent rien à nourrir, et ne demandent que quelques soins.

G. Le ver à soie, l'une des plus riches et des plus surprenantes productions de la nature, n'offre pas moins que les abeilles, de l'utile, de l'agréable, et même du merveilleux.

H. Comme aliment ordinaire, comme assaisonnement, comme remède, le lait est d'un excellent produit.

I. Le jardinage réunit toutes les opérations de l'agriculture, mais sous un rapport plus circonscrit et plus agréable: car il exige des connaissances particulières et très-étendues.

J. L'exercice de la chasse ne peut être, comme tout autre, que favorable à la santé; c'est l'exercice le plus sain pour le corps, et le repos le plus agréable pour l'esprit.

K. Le cheval est celui de tous les animaux qui, avec une grande taille, a le plus d'élégance et de proportion dans les parties du corps. C'est le plus nécessaire, le plus noble de tous les animaux domestiques.

L. L'âne est d'un tempérament mélancolique, patient et laborieux, mais fort-obstiné; il porte des fardeaux considérables pour sa grosseur: il tire à la charrette, et à la charrue dans les terres légères: il vit de peu, et ne coûte presque rien à nourrir.

M. Les bêtes à laine sont les bestiaux qui font le plus de profit par leur fécondité, leur toison, leur chair, leur lait, leur graisse, leurs peaux. Un troupeau est l'âme d'une ferme.

and the swarms that they produce; they cost nothing to keep, and want nothing but a little care.

The silk-worm, one of the most rich and most surprising productions of nature, offers, not less than bees, that which is useful, agreeable, and even wonderful.

As ordinary food, as an ingredient, as a remedy, milk is an article of great value.

Gardening unites all the operations of agriculture, but in a way more compact and much more pleasing; for it requires knowledge at once minute and very extensive.

The exercise of hunting cannot but be, like every other, favourable to health; it is the exercise the most healthy for the body, and the relaxation the most agreeable for the mind.

The horse is, of all animals, that which, with a large frame, has the most elegance and proportion in the parts of the body. It is the most necessary, the most noble, of all domestic animals.

The ass is of a gloomy temper, patient and laborious, but very obstinate; he carries large burdens for his size; he draws the cart, and the plough in light lands: he lives upon little, and costs scarcely anything to keep.

Sheep are the animals which yield the greatest profit, from their fecundity, their fleece, their flesh, their milk, their fat, their skins. A flock is the soul of a farm.

LETTER XIV.

RELATING TO THE GENDERS OF NOUNS, AND TO THE
CONJUGATIONS AND THE IRREGULARITIES OF VERBS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

174. I now come to those cumbrous masses of words, which, if they had been introduced before, would have wholly broken asunder that chain of instruction which I wished to keep entire. In paragraphs 64 and 65 I *put off*, as you will recollect, what I had further to say on the GENDERS OF NOUNS; and you will also recollect that, in paragraphs 121 and 122, I *put off* what I had further to say on the TEN CONJUGATIONS OF REGULAR VERBS, and on the IRREGULAR VERBS. If you now read again paragraph 122, it will not be necessary for me to say, in this place, anything further respecting my *reasons* for having thus postponed the details upon these three subjects. These details I shall now give, under the three heads just named; and I call these so many TASKS, because this word implies a rather laborious affair. Indeed, that which you will find pointed out by this letter is *mere labour* for the *hand*, the *eye*, and the *memory*. The Genders of Nouns *belonged* to the Etymology of Nouns; the Conjugations and Irregularities of Verbs *belonged* to the Etymology of Verbs; and the *principles* relating to them were sufficiently dwelt on in the proper places: but the *details*, the *lists*, the mere *memory* part, could not be gone into there, without making, in your study of principles, *classisms* too wide. Having gone through the Etymo-

logy of all the sorts of words, or parts of speech, we come to a proper place for introducing these details; for, though they are matters for the memory only, they ought to be pretty well secured before we go further in advance. When we have secured them we shall enter upon the SYNTAX; and shall find it, I trust, a matter of pleasure rather than of toil.

175. Our first task is, then, the ascertaining of the GENDERS OF NOUNS. Now read paragraphs from 54 to 65, both inclusive, carefully through. When you have done that, look attentively at paragraph 64 once more; for I am now going to give you a specimen of my way of going to work as I have described it in this last-mentioned paragraph. I shall begin with letter A of the Dictionary; that is to say, with the beginning. I shall, in giving you this specimen, take some nouns that begin with that letter. Then take some that begin with B; and so on, till I have gone through the alphabet.

176. The TASK is, simply that of writing down in alphabetical order, in a little blank book, all the nouns in the language; and just putting *le* or *la* before each, according to the gender. In the Dictionary you will find against each noun *s. m.* or *s. f.*, that is to say, *substantive* (or noun) *masculine*; or *substantive* (or noun) *feminine*. And when you write the nouns in your book, you will put before each the *le* or the *la* according as you find the noun to be a masculine or a feminine.

177. But you cannot go through the whole of the Dictionary precisely in this way; for, if the noun begin with a vowel, or with an *h* mute, the definite article for both genders is *l'*. Therefore, in these cases,

that is to say, as to the nouns beginning with *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and *h* mute, you must use the indefinite article, *un* or *une*.

178. Then, again, there are some nouns which begin with a vowel, and which have neither plural nor singular; as, *argent*. We cannot say *un argent*. So that, in such a case as this, the best way will be to put the adjective *good* (*bon* or *bonne*) before the noun; and that will very plainly mark the gender.

179. There are, besides, some few nouns that are *plural* and never *singular*; as, *vivres*, *victuals*. Now, the plural definite article, *les*, is for *both genders*. In such cases, also, you must put the *adjective*, as in the case of *argent*; and thus you will, of course, write, *de bon argent*, *de bons vivres*; but, when you have to write down *water* and *snuffers*, you will write *de bonne eau*, and *de bonnes mouchettes*.

180. I have not put the *English* opposite the French. It is of no use in this case. It can only add to the labour, and thereby cause a loss of time. The object is to get the genders of the nouns well fixed in your memory; and for the doing of this there is nothing like the *writing of the thing down*. But, let me now give the little specimen that I have been talking of; and, when I have done that, I have another remark or two to make on the subject.

A.	B.	C.
un aune: <i>an alder tree</i> .	de bon babeurre.	la capote.
une aune: <i>an ell</i> .	la babine.	la caque.
de bon argent.	le bac.	le couteau.
D.	E.	F.
le daim.	de bonne eau.	de bon froment.
le damas.	une ébauche.	la framboise
la danse.	un éblouissement.	le framboisier.

G.	H.	I.
le genre. la gazette. le golfe.	de bonnes hardes. la hache. le haricot.	une image. une intrigue. un interprète.
J.	L.	M.
la jeunesse le jeûne. le jeu.	le livre: <i>the book</i> . la livre: <i>the pound</i> . d'étriolettes limites.	le mot. le magasin. de bons matériaux.
N.	O.	P.
le nain. la nageoire. la naissance.	un œil. un œuf. une oie.	la pomme la poire. le puits.
Q.	R.	S.
la quaiche. le quartaut. la quarte.	le renard. la récompense. la récolte.	la source. le songe. le sourcil.
T.	U.	V.
le tabac. la table. la tache.	une urne. un usage. une usance.	le vacarme. de longues vacances. la vanne.
Y.	Z.	
une yeuse.	le zain. le zèle. la zibelina	

181. In paragraphs 178 and 179, I directed you to take the adjective *good* (*bon* or *bons*, *bonne* or *bonnes*); but in some cases this adjective would make nonsense of the phrase. It is very well to say, *de bon babeurre*, good *buttermilk*; but it would be nonsense to say, *de bonnes vacances*, good *holidays*. Therefore I have put *longues* before *vacances*, which denotes the gender as clearly as the adjective *bonnes* would do it.

182. You will observe, that I have merely given a specimen under each letter of the alphabet. I have not taken the nouns which stand first under each

letter; but *you* will begin at the first noun under A, and will write down *every one* in the order in which you find it in the Dictionary. Observe, however, that where the same noun has several *distinct significations*, and is therefore repeated several times in the Dictionary, as in the case of the noun *not*, you need write the word down but once; unless, indeed, as is sometimes the case, the same noun, that is to say, a noun consisting of the same letters, and those letters placed in the same order, be masculine in *one sense*, and feminine in *another*. This is the case with regard to the two nouns which stand first under the letter A in the foregoing specimens; and also in the case of the two first nouns under the letter L. When this is the case it will be useful to write down the *English* of the words, as I have done in the two cases just pointed out.

183. Now, this is the TASK; and some labour it certainly does require; but it does not require any great degree of labour. The whole of the nouns may be written down, in this way, in *six days*. But when I had written the whole down upon paper of the common size, I copied them into a little book, made of *very thin paper*, three inches long and two wide. I divided the pages of this book each into two columns, and each column had about *thirty* nouns. This little book was *always about me*. It went into my pocket-book, and did not, perhaps, weigh the twentieth part of an ounce. Sitting, walking, riding; whatever *my* situation, I could always refer to my little book in a moment. This method is, therefore, the one that I beg you to pursue. Once more let me remind you of the necessity of writing down the words *correctly*. You must not omit any of the *accents*; for they, as you have seen

before, are, in some cases, of as much importance as the letters. Write in a *plain* hand. Writing may be neat and plain, though very small, which yours must be when you come to put the nouns into the little book before mentioned.

184. Having performed this TASK, which may possibly require ten days to do it well, and to make your little book in a very neat manner, you will proceed to the next TASK; but before you do this, spend *two days* in reading through all the foregoing THIRTEEN LETTERS; because, by the end of the ten days, which the list of nouns will demand, it will be necessary to bring your mind back to the previous part of the Grammar. Having read carefully through the whole of the Grammar up to this place, having taken this review of your labours, you will proceed to the next TASK, which is by no means less necessary, but is much less laborious.

185. The CONJUGATION OF REGULAR VERBS forms the subject of the second TASK. In paragraph 118, I have explained the meaning of the word *Conjugation*, and have given you the conjugation of an English Verb and of a French Verb. In paragraphs 120 and 121, I have spoken of the *ten Conjugations* of French Verbs, and, in paragraph 122, I have spoken of the *Irregular Verbs*. Read all these paragraphs carefully through now. Pay great attention to all that they contain; and, when you have gone through them in this careful manner, you will be ready to enter on the ten conjugations.

186. If I had to make a *dictionary*, I would make but *two* conjugations; but I must take the Dictionary as I find it. It is, however, a matter of little consequence, so that we attend to what we are about. The

French verbs are, as was observed in paragraph 121, considered as divided into *ten conjugations*. These are denoted in the Dictionary by the figures 1, 2, 3, and so on to 10. You have seen that a French verb takes more than *thirty different forms*. These forms are different according to the different conjugations. You have seen that TROUVER (to find) becomes *trouve, trouvons, trouvez, trouvent*. But AGIR (to act) becomes, in some cases, *agis, agissons, agissez, agissent*. The changes in this last verb are very different from those in the former verb. These two verbs are said to belong to different conjugations, because the changes in one of them are different from the changes in the other; and if you look into the Dictionary you will find the figure 1 after TROUVER, and the figure 2 after AGIR; because the former verb is of the first and the latter of the second conjugation. [It is not, however, in all dictionaries that these indications will be found.]

187. You will now be ready to ask, what are the marks which designate the conjugations; that is to say, what is it that makes us say, that *this verb* belongs to such a conjugation, and that *that verb* belongs to such other conjugation? The designating marks are *the endings of the verbs*; and the method adopted has been this: to call the verbs ending in *er* verbs of the first conjugation, those in *ir* of the second, in *tir* of the third, in *enir* of the fourth, in *coir* of the fifth, in *aire* of the sixth, in *indre* of the seventh, in *oître* of the eighth, in *uire* of the ninth, in *dre* of the tenth.

188. But you may say, What is the *use* of all this classifying? Oh! a great deal of *use*, as I will now show you. Suppose you have to translate this phrase, *you find a sheep*; you write, *vous trouvez un mouton*;

then this phrase, *you act well*; you, if you paid no attention to conjugation, would write, *vous agiz bien*. But, knowing by its ending that *agir* is of the second conjugation, and having learned the manner of making the changes in the verbs of that conjugation, you would write, not *agiz*, but *agissez*.

189. What you have now to do, then, is to learn the manner of making the changes in the verbs of all these *ten conjugations*. In order to teach you this, I shall take one verb of each of the ten conjugations, and conjugate it all through; that is to say, exhibit it in all its forms, from that of the Infinitive Mode to that of the Participle, in the same manner that I have exhibited the verb *TROUVER*, in paragraph 118. The verbs which I shall take for this purpose are the following:

1. TROUVER,	to find.
2. AGIR,	to act.
3. MENTIR,	to lie.
4. VENIR,	to come.
5. DEVOIR,	to owe.
6. FAIRE,	to make, or do.
7. JOINDRE,	to join.
8. CROÎTRE,	to grow.
9. CUIRE,	to cook.
10. VENDRE,	to sell.

Here is one verb of each of the ten conjugations; and if you were to look out these verbs in the Dictionary, you would find a figure against each agreeing with what you see here. (See the note at end of paragraph 186.) Bear in mind, then, that the verbs of the first conjugation end in *er*, those of the second in *ir*, of the third in *tir*, the fourth in *enir*, the fifth *evoir*, the sixth *aire*, the seventh *oindre*, the eighth *ôître*, the ninth *uire*, and the tenth *endre* and *ondre*.

190. There will be some remarks to make upon each

conjugation, and in order that all may be as plain as possible, I shall make one place contain the remarks on each conjugation, and shall exhibit a verb regularly conjugated on the opposite page; so that when you turn over the leaf, you will come to a fresh conjugation.

191. FIRST CONJUGATION. Paragraphs 121 and 122 have explained to you what *Irregular Verbs* are; and you are to observe, that there are some of those of each Conjugation. But, besides these irregulars, there are some *little irregularities* in several of the verbs of this first conjugation.

FIRST. When there is a *g* immediately before the *er*, the *e* is not dropped in those parts of the verb which require an *o* or an *a* to come after the *g*. In NAGER (to swim), for instance, we should, if we followed the general rule, say, *je nagais*: but this would introduce the hard sound of *gais*: we therefore say, *je nageais*. And in the active participle we say, *nageant*, and not *nagant*.

SECOND. When a question is asked, and the verb is immediately followed by the pronoun *je*, the *e* is changed into an *é*; as, *trouv^é-je* ? Find I ?

THIRD. Verbs which end in *uyer*, *oyer*, *ayer*, and *ejer*, are, by some writers, made to change the *y* into *í*, in those parts of the verb where the *y* comes immediately before an *e* mute; and therefore, instead of *je paye* (I pay), such writers use *je paie*. The verb *envoyer* (to send) makes *enverrai*, in the future, and *enverrais* in the past of the subjunctive.

FOURTH. The verbs *appeler* (to call) and *jeter* (to throw) double the *l* and the *t* in those parts of the verb which take an *e* mute immediately after the *l* and *t*; as, *j'appelle*, and not *j'appele*; *je jette*, and not *je jete*. This is the case in a very few other instances.

FIFTH. When the verb ends in *cer*, the *c* must have a *cédille* placed under it, when it is immediately followed by an *a* or an *o*; as, *tracer* (to trace), *je traçais*, *il traça*. These irregularities amount to very little; and all the verbs in *er* are to be considered as *regular*, except *ALLER* and *PUER*.

SIXTH. In the part of the verb which ends with a *vowel*, and which, when a question is asked, is followed by *il* or *elle*, there must be a *t* put between the verb and the *il* or *elle*, with a double hyphen; thus, *trouve-t-il*? does he find? *trouva-t-il*? did he find? This is merely for the sake of the sound, which without the *t* would be very disagreeable.

FIRST CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Trouver, | To find.

INDICATIVE MODE.

*Present Time.*Je trouve,
tu trouves,
il trouve,I find.
thou findest.
he finds.we find.
you find.
they find.*Past Imperfect Time.*Je trouvais,
tu trouvais,
il trouvait,I found.
thou foundest.
he found.nous trouvions,
vous trouviez,
ils trouvaient,we found.
you found.
they found.*Past Perfect Time.*Je trouvai,
tu trouvas,
il trouva,I found.
thou foundest.
he found.nous trouvâmes,
vous trouvâtes,
ils trouvèrent,we found.
you found.
they found.*Future Time.*Je trouverai,
tu trouveras,
il trouvera,I shall find.
thou shalt find.
he shall find.nous trouverons,
vous trouverez,
ils trouveront,we shall find.
you shall find.
they shall find.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

*Present Time.*Je trouve,
tu trouves,
il trouve,I may find.
thou mayest find.
he may find.nous trouvions,
vous trouviez,
ils trouvent,we may find.
you may find.
they may find.*Past Imperfect Time.*Je trouverais,
tu trouverais,
il trouverait,I should find.
thou shouldst find.
he should find.nous trouverions,
vous trouveriez,
ils trouveraient,we should find.
you should find.
they should find.*Past Perfect Time.*Je trouvasse,
tu trouvasse,
il trouvât,I might find.
thou mightest find.
he might find.nous trouvassions,
vous trouvassez,
ils trouvassent,we might find.
you might find.
they might find.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

trouve,
qu'il trouve,find.
let him find.trouvons,
trouvez,
qu'ils trouvent,let us find.
find.
let them find.

PARTICIPLES.

trouvant, || finding.
trouvé, || found.

192. SECOND CONJUGATION. The verbs of this conjugation end (in their infinitive mode) in *ir*. There are, however, two other conjugations which end in *ir*; namely, the *third* and the *fourth*, as you have seen in paragraph 189. But these two end in *tir* and *enir*. Of the second conjugation, the verb on the following page is one. There are about 200 verbs of this second conjugation.—In the *Subjunctive Mode* a *que* is understood always; as, *que j'agisse*, that I may act. This matter will be fully explained in Letter XXIV., where I shall show how the French supply the place of these little words.—It may be useful to add a word or two here about the **PARTICIPLES**. The active participle, as *TROUVANT*, *AGISSANT*, never changes its form [see, however, paragraph 436]; but the passive participle does change its form in some cases. *Trouvé*, for instance, is the passive participle of the verb *Trouver*; but this participle is sometimes *trouvé*, at others *trouvés*, at others *trouvée*, and at others *trouvées*. When the passive participle ought to change its form, and when it ought not, is not to be learned by us without great attention. This matter, which is of the first importance, I shall treat of fully in the *Syntax of Verbs*, in Letter XXIII. The changes in the form of the passive participle are not given in the conjugations, because the participle is not always subject to change. The changes depend upon the construction of the sentence in which the participle is used; and you have not yet come to the construction of sentences.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Agir, | To Act.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

J'agis,	I act.	nous agissons,	we act.
tu agis,	thou actest.	vous agissez,	you act.
il agit,	he acts.	ils agissent,	they act.

Past Imperfect Time.

J'agissais,	I acted.	nous agissions,	we acted.
tu agissais,	thou actedst.	vous agissiez,	you acted.
il agissait,	he acted.	ils agissaient,	they acted.

Past Perfect Time.

J'agis,	I acted.	nous agîmes,	we acted.
tu agis,	thou actedst.	vous agîtes,	you acted.
il agit,	he acted.	ils agirent,	they acted.

Future Time.

J'agirai,	I shall act.	nous agirons,	we shall act.
tu agiras,	thou shalt act.	vous agirez,	you shall act.
il agira,	he shall act.	ils agiront.	they shall act.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

J'agisse,	I may act.	nous agissions,	we may act.
tu agisses,	thou mayest act.	vous agissiez,	you may act.
il agisse,	he may act.	ils agissent,	they may act.

Past Imperfect Time.

J'agirais,	I should act.	nous agirions,	we should act.
tu agirais,	thou shouldest act.	vous agiriez,	you should act.
il agirait,	he should act.	ils agiraient,	they should act.

Past Perfect Time.

J'agisse,	I might act.	nous agissions,	we might act.
tu agisses,	thou mightest act.	vous agissiez,	you might act.
il agit,	he might act.	ils agissent,	they might act.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

agis,	act.	agissons,	let us act.
qu'il agisse,	let him act.	agissez,	act.
		qu'ils agissent,	let them act.

PARTICIPLES.

agissant,	acting.
agi,	acted.

193. THIRD CONJUGATION. These are verbs in *tir*, though it ought to be observed that there are *some* of the verbs of the SECOND conjugation which end in *tir*. However, this can produce no mistake, because I shall here subjoin a list of all the verbs of this conjugation.—There are THIRTEEN of them; and they are as follows:

<i>Consentir,</i>	to consent.	<i>Ressentir,</i>	to resent.
<i>Démentir,</i>	to give the lie.	<i>Ressortir,</i>	to go out again.
<i>Desservir,</i>	to clear the table.	<i>Sentir,</i>	to feel.
<i>Mentir,</i>	to lie.	<i>Servir,</i>	to serve.
<i>Partir,</i>	to set out.	<i>Repentir, (Se)</i>	to repent.
<i>Pressentir,</i>	to foresee.	<i>Sortir,</i>	to go out.
<i>Repartir,</i>	to set out again.		

You will see that several of these verbs are derived from others of them; as, *repartir* comes from *partir*. I have, however, placed them here in alphabetical order.—I must also observe that the English is not, in these cases, always a *full translation* of the French. *Sentir*, for instance, means, sometimes, to *smell*; and *répartir*, with the accent, means to *divide* or *distribute*, while without the accent (*repartir*) it means to *reply*, to *set out again*.—But these matters you will soon become well acquainted with by those frequent references to the Dictionary which will be required when you come to translate. At present you have more to do with the *forms* of words, and with the changes in those forms, than with the various meanings of words.—Paragraph 115 should be read with attention. The observations which it contains relative to the manner of using the *will*, *shall*, and so forth, apply to all the conjugations.—Small letters have, at the beginning of words, been used as much as possible, instead of capitals, in order to save room.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Mentir, | To Lie.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je mens,	I lie.	nous mentons,	we lie.
tu mens,	thou liest.	vous mentez,	you lie.
il ment,	he lies.	ils mentent,	they lie.

Past Imperfect Time.

je mentais,	I lied.	nous mentionnâmes,	we lied.
tu mentais,	thou liedst.	vous mentiez,	you lied.
il mentait,	he lied.	ils mentaient,	they lied.

Past Perfect Time.

je mentis,	I lied.	nous mentîmes,	we lied.
tu mentis,	thou liedst.	vous mentîtes,	you lied.
il mentit,	he lied.	ils mentirent,	they lied.

Future Time.

je mentirai,	I shall lie.	nous mentirons,	we shall lie.
tu mentiras,	thou shalt lie.	vous mentirez,	you shall lie.
il mentira,	he shall lie.	ils mentiront,	they shall lie.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je mente,	I may lie.	nous mentionnions,	we may lie.
tu mentes,	thou mayest lie.	vous mentiez,	you may lie.
il mente,	he may lie.	ils mentent,	they may lie.

Past Imperfect Time.

je mentirais,	I should lie.	nous mentirions,	we should lie.
tu mentirais,	thou shouldst lie.	vous mentiriez,	you should lie.
il mentirait,	he should lie.	ils mentiraient,	they should lie.

Past Perfect Time.

je mentisse,	I might lie.	nous mentissions,	we might lie.
tu mentisses,	thou mightest lie.	vous mentissiez,	you might lie.
il mentît,	he might lie.	ils mentissent,	they might lie.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

mentons,	let us lie.
mentez,	lie.
qu'ils mentent,	let them lie.

PARTICIPLES.

mentant,	lying.
menti,	lied.

194. FOURTH CONJUGATION. The verbs of this conjugation end in *enir*; as you see in the case of *VENIR*. There are TWENTY-FOUR of them, as follows:

<i>Abstenir</i> , (S')	to abstain.	<i>Parvenir</i> ,	to succeed.
<i>Appartenir</i> ,	to belong.	<i>Prévenir</i> ,	to prevent.
<i>Contenir</i> ,	to contain.	<i>Provenir</i> ,	to result from.
<i>Contrevenir</i> ,	to contravene.	<i>Retenir</i> ,	to retain.
<i>Convenir</i> ,	to agree to.	<i>Ressouvenir</i> , (Se)	to call to mind.
<i>Détenir</i> ,	to detain.	<i>Rerenir</i> ,	to come back.
<i>Devenir</i> ,	to become.	<i>Soutenir</i> ,	to sustain.
<i>Disconvenir</i> ,	to dissent from.	<i>Souvenir</i> , (Se)	to remember.
<i>Entretenir</i> ,	to keep up.	<i>Sulvenir</i> ,	to come to the help of.
<i>Intervenir</i> ,	to intervene.	<i>Survenir</i> ,	to happen.
<i>Maintenir</i> ,	to maintain.	<i>Tenir</i> ,	to hold.
<i>Obtenir</i> ,	to obtain.	<i>Venir</i> ,	to come.

Here are, in fact, but *two* original verbs, all the other twenty-two being partly made out of them; and it is curious enough, that these two should be the two *last* upon the *list*. Every one of these verbs expresses something about *holding* or *coming*. *ABSTENIR* is to *back hold*, or *hold back*. *APPARTENIR* is to *apart hold*, or *hold apart*, or, rather, *to be held apart*. *MAINTENIR* is to *hand hold*, or hold fast, or firmly. *INTERVENIR* is to *come between*. *PARVENIR* is to *come by*, or *at*. *PRÉVENIR* is to *come before*. This is, too, the meaning of our word *prevent*; and hence, in one of the prayers of the Liturgy, we say, "*Prevent us, O Lord, in all our doing*;" that is to say, *come before us*, or *lead*, or *guide us*.—I observed, in paragraph 193, that some of the verbs, in all these lists, had other meanings besides those expressed by the English words put against them. Such is remarkably the case of this verb *prévenir*, which means (besides to *prevent*) to *apprize*, to *anticipate*, to *be before-hand with*. Bear this in mind; for it will be of great use to you when you come to translate.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Venir, I To Come.

INDICATIVE MODE.

*Present Time.*je viens,
tu viens,
il vient,I come.
thou comest.
he comes.nous venons,
vous venez,
ils viennent,we come.
you come.
they come.*Past Imperfect Time.*je venais,
tu venais,
il venait.I came.
thou camest.
he came.nous venions,
vous veniez,
ils venaient,we came.
you came.
they came.*Past Perfect Time.*je vins,
tu vins,
il vint,I came.
thou camest.
he came.nous vinmes,
vous vintes,
ils vinrent,we came.
you came.
they came.*Future Time.*je viendral,
tu viendras,
il viendra,I shall come.
thou shalt come.
he shall come.nous viendrons,
vous viendrez,
ils viendront,we shall come.
you shall come.
they shall come.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

*Present Time.*je vienne,
tu viennes,
il vienne,I may come.
thou mayest come.
he may come.nous venions,
vous veniez,
ils viennent,we may come.
you may come.
they may come.*Past Imperfect Time.*je viendrais,
tu viendrais,
il viendrait,I should come.
thou shouldst come.
he should come.nous viendrions,
vous viendriez,
ils viendraient,we should come.
you should come.
they should come.*Past Perfect Time.*je vinsse,
tu vinssses,
il vint,I might come.
thou mightest come.
he might come.nous vinssions,
vous vinsseriez,
ils vinssent,we might come.
you might come.
they might come.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

viens,
qu'il vienne,come.
let him come.venons,
venez,
qu'ils viennent,let us come.
come.
let them come.

PARTICIPLES.

venant,
venu,coming.
come.

195. FIFTH CONJUGATION. This consists of verbs ending in *avoir*. There are but six of them. It was hardly worth while to make a *conjugation* of these; but it has been done in the Dictionary which is the most in use, and therefore I do it here. These six verbs are :

<i>Appercevoir, (S')</i>		to perceive.		<i>Percevoir,</i>		to levy, or collect.
<i>Concevoir,</i>		to conceive.		<i>Recevoir,</i>		to receive.
<i>Devoir,</i>		to owe.		<i>Redevoir,</i>		to owe again.

There is the verb *decevoir*; but it is not much used.—*DEVOIR*, the verb conjugated on the following page, is a verb of great use. It answers, in many cases, to our *ought*, and in other cases to our *should*. Our *ought* is, in fact, a part of the verb *to owe*, and is become *ought* by corruption. For instance, “I *ought* to write to you,” means, that “I *owe* the performance of the act of “writing to you.” The French phrase would be, “Je “*dois* vous écrire;” which is, “I *owe* to you to write.” However, you will find more as to this matter when you get into the Syntax. Let me, as I have room in this place, remind you again of the great advantage of writing *in a plain hand*. You will write these conjugations down, as before directed; but if you write in a *slovenly hand*, you will not place the matter so safely in your memory as if you wrote in a plain and neat hand. In short, the best manner of doing a thing is, in the end, also the least troublesome and the quickest.

FIFTH CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Devoir, | To Owe.

INDICATIVE MODE.

*Present Time.*Je dois,
tu dois,
il doit,I owe.
thou owest.
he owes.nous devons,
vous devez,
ils doivent,we owe.
you owe.
they owe.*Past Imperfect Time.*Je devais,
tu devais,
il devait,I owed.
thou owedst.
he owed.we owed.
you owed.
they owed.*Past Perfect Time.*Je dus,
tu dus,
il dut,I owed.
thou owedst.
he owed.nous dûmes,
vous dûtes,
ils durent,we owed.
you owed.
they owed.*Future Time.*Je devrai,
tu devras,
il devra,I shall owe.
thou shalt owe.
he shall owe.we shall owe.
you shall owe.
they shall owe.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

*Present Time.*Je doive,
tu doives,
il doive,I may owe.
thou mayest owe.
he may owe.nous devions,
vous deviez,
ils doivent,we may owe.
you may owe.
they may owe.*Past Imperfect Time.*Je devrais,
tu devrais,
il devrait,I should owe.
thou shouldest owe.
he should owe.nous devrions,
vous devriez,
ils devraient,we should owe.
you should owe.
they should owe.*Past Perfect Time.*Je dusse,
tu dusses,
il dût,I might owe.
thou mightest owe.
he might owe.nous dussions,
vous dussiez,
ils dussent,we might owe.
you might owe.
they might owe.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

dois,
qu'il doive,owe.
let him owe.devons,
devez,
qu'ils doivent,let us owe.
owe.
let them owe.

PARTICIPLES.

devant, |
dû, | owing.
owed.

196. SIXTH CONJUGATION. These are the verbs ending in *aire*; and there are SEVEN of them, as follows:

<i>Contrefaire,</i>	to counterfeit.		<i>Redéfaire,</i>	to undo again.
<i>Défaire,</i>	to undo.		<i>Satisfaire,</i>	to satisfy.
<i>Faire,</i>	to do, or to make.		<i>Surfaire,</i>	to overdo.
<i>Refaire,</i>	to do again.			

You will see at once that this is, in reality, all *one original verb*; for every one of these verbs expresses something about *doing*. To *counterfeit* is *against* to do; and *satisfy* is *enough* to do, or *enough doing*. DOCTOR JOHNSON, in his *Dictionary*, says, that our *satisfy* comes from the Latin word *satisfacio*; but, why, Doctor? Is not our word much more like *satisfaire*? Is not the *fy* manifestly *fuit*, or *faire*? And a great number of our words come in part from this root; as *feat*, *feasible*. The country people in Hampshire commonly say, *it does not fay*; meaning it does not *do*, it does not *go on well*. Many of our words, ending in *fy*, come in part from this French word *faire*; and many others which end in *ait* or *eit*. Our word *surfeit* is, indeed, *French*, if the *e* were exchanged for an *a*. *Sur* is *over*, and *feit* (*fait*) is *done*.—But *faire* is, sometimes, *to make*: we have two verbs here to the one French verb; and, as our two verbs are words of great use, so is this French verb *faire*, as you will see by-and-by; therefore, take particular pains in learning to conjugate it.—It is to be observed, that in the past imperfect time of the indicative mode there are two ways of spelling this verb: *je fesais*, *tu fesais*, or, *je faisais*, *tu faisais*, and so on throughout that time. The latter form, with the *ai*, is more modern than that with the *e*.

SIXTH CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Faire, || To Do.

INDICATIVE MODE.

*Present Time.*je fais,
tu fais,
il fait,I do.
thou doest.
he does.|| nous faisons,
vous faites,
ils font,we do.
you do.
they do.*Past Imperfect Time.*je faisais,
tu faisais,
il faisait,I did.
thou didst.
he did.|| nous faisions,
vous faisiez,
ils faisaient,we did.
you did.
they did.*Past Perfect Time.*je fis,
tu fis,
il fit,I did.
thou didst.
he did.|| nous fîmes,
vous fîtes,
ils firent,| we did.
you did.
they did.*Future Time.*je ferai,
tu feras,
il fera,I shall do.
thou shalt do.
he shall do.|| nous ferons,
vous ferez,
ils feront,we shall do.
you shall do.
they shall do.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

*Present Time.*je fasse,
tu fasses,
il fasse,I may do.
thou mayest do.
he may do.|| nous fassions,
vous fassiez,
ils fassent,we may do.
you may do.
they may do.*Past Imperfect Time.*je ferais,
tu ferais,
il ferait,I should do.
thou shouldst do.
he should do.|| nous ferions,
vous feriez,
ils feraient,we should do.
you should do.
they should do.*Past Perfect Time.*je fissse,
tu fissses,
il fît,I might do.
thou mightest do.
he might do.|| nous fissions,
vous fissiez,
ils fissent,we might do.
you might do.
they might do.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

fais,
qu'il fasse,—
do.
let him do.|| faisons,
faites,
qu'ils fassent,let us do.
do.
let them do.

PARTICIPLES.

fesant,
fait,| doing.
done.

197. SEVENTH CONJUGATION. These are verbs that end in *aindre*, *eindre*, or *oindre*. The difference in the ending of these makes no difference in the manner of conjugating them. But before I speak further of this, let me give you a list of the verbs of this conjugation, of which there are only FIFTEEN, as follows:

<i>Astreindre,</i>	to bind.	<i>Feindre,</i>	to feign.
<i>Atteindre,</i>	to reach.	<i>Joindre,</i>	to join.
<i>Ceindre,</i>	to gird.	<i>Peindre,</i>	to paint.
<i>Contraindre,</i>	to constrain.	<i>Plaindre,</i>	to pity.
<i>Craindre,</i>	to fear.	<i>Plaindre, (Se)</i>	to complain.
<i>Enceindre,</i>	to surround.	<i>Restreindre,</i>	to restrain.
<i>Enjoindre,</i>	to enjoin	<i>Teindre,</i>	to tint, or dye.
<i>Eteindre,</i>	to extinguish.		

There are three or four other verbs of these terminations; but they are *out of use*, and therefore I will take no further notice of them. Here are *three different* endings, if you go back to the *sixth* letter from the end; but the *changes* of all three being the same, these verbs are all put into one conjugation. You see what the changes are in *joindre*. Now, suppose you have to conjugate *craindre*. Je *crains*, je *craignais*, je *craignis*, je *craindrai*, and so forth. And, if you take *feindre*, you say, je *feins*, je *feignais*, je *feignis*, je *feindrai*. All this becomes familiar in a very short time; and especially if you write the conjugations down over and over again, and in a neat and plain hand.

SEVENTH CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Joindre, || To Join.

INDICATIVE MODE.

*Present Time.*Je joins,
tu joins,
il joint,I join.
thou joinest.
he joins.; nous joignons,
vous joignez,
'ls joignent,we join.
you join.
they join.*Past Imperfect Time.*Je joignais,
tu joignais,
il joignait,I joined.
thou joinedst.
he joined.; nous joignions,
vous joigniez,
ils joignaient,we joined.
you joined.
they joined.*Past Perfect Time.*Je joignis,
tu joignis,
il joignit,I joined.
thou joinedst.
he joined.|| nous joignîmes,
vous joignîtes,
ils joignirent,we joined.
you joined.
they joined.*Future Time.*Je joindrai,
tu joindras,
il joindra,I shall join.
thou shalt join.
he shall join.nous joindrons,
vous joindrez,
ils joindront,we shall join.
you shall join.
they shall join.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

*Présent Time.*Je joigne,
tu joignes,
il joigne,I may join.
thou mayest join.
he may join.nous joignons,
vous joigniez,
ils joignent,we may join.
you may join.
they may join.*Past Imperfect Time.*Je joindrais,
tu joindrais,
il joindrait,I should join.
thou shouldst join.
he should join.nous joindrions,
vous joindriez,
ils joindraient,we should join.
you should join.
they should join.*Past Perfect Time.*Je joignisse,
tu joignisses,
il joignit,I might join.
thou mightest join.
he might join.nous joignissions,
vous joignissiez,
ils joignissent,we might join.
you might join.
they might join.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

joins,
qu'il joigne,join.
let him join.joignons,
joignez,
qu'ils joignent,let us join.
join
let them join.

PARTICIPLES.

joignant, • || joining.
joint, joined.

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198. EIGHTH CONJUGATION. The verbs of this conjugation end in *ôître* and *âître*. They are NINE in number, as follows :

<i>Accroître,</i>	to accrue.		<i>Méconnaître,</i>	to forget.
<i>Connaître,</i>	to know.		<i>Paraître,</i>	to appear.
<i>Croître,</i>	to grow.		<i>Recroître,</i>	to grow again
<i>Décroître,</i>	to get less.		<i>Reconnaître,</i>	to recognize.
<i>Disparaître,</i>	to disappear.			

There are two or three *law-terms*, which I do not notice here. They are of no use, and can only serve to load the memory uselessly. Observe, that in *some books* these words have not a circumflex accent (^) over the *i*, but merely a single dot, as in other cases. It is, perhaps, of very little consequence; but I mention it that you may be prepared for such a case. Many French words formerly had an *s* where they now have none. For instance, people used to write *maistre*, *estre*, instead of *maître* and *être*; and the ^ is put to signify the omission of the *s*. It is the same with *croître*, which used to be written *croistre*.

EIGHTH CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Croître, | To Grow.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je crois,	I grow.	nous croissons,	we grow.
tu crois,	thou growest.	vous croissez,	you grow.
il croît,	he grows.	ils croissent,	they grow.

Past Imperfect Time.

je croissais,	I grew.	nous croissions,	we grew.
tu croissais,	thou didst grow.	vous croissiez,	you grew.
il croissait,	he grew.	ils croissaient,	they grew.

Past Perfect Time.

je crus,	I grew.	nous crûmes,	we grew.
tu crus,	thou didst grow.	vous crûtes,	you grew.
il crût,	he grew.	ils crurent,	they grew.

Future Time.

je croîtrai,	I shall grow.	nous croîtrons,	we shall grow.
tu croîtras,	thou shalt grow.	vous croîtrez,	you shall grow.
il croîtra,	he shall grow.	ils croîtront,	they shall grow.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je croisse,	I may grow.	nous croissions,	we may grow.
tu croisses,	thou mayest grow.	vous croissiez,	you may grow.
il croisse,	he may grow.	ils croissent,	they may grow.

Past Imperfect Time.

je croîtrais,	I should grow.	nous croîtrions,	we should grow.
tu croîtrais,	thou shouldst grow.	vous croîtriez,	you should grow.
il croîtrait,	he should grow.	ils croîtraient,	they should grow.

Past Perfect Time.

je crusses,	I might grow.	nous crussions,	we might grow.
tu crusses,	thou mightest grow.	vous crussiez,	you might grow.
il crût,	he might grow.	ils crussent,	they might grow.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

crois,	grow.	croissons,	let us grow.
qu'il croisse,	let him grow.	croissez,	grow.
		qu'ils croissent,	let them grow.

PARTICIPLES.

croissant,	growing.
crû,	grown.

199. NINTH CONJUGATION. This conjugation consists of the verbs that end in *uire*, which are EIGHTEEN in number, some of them having a little of *irregularity*, which will be noticed when I have given you the list.

<i>Conduire,</i>	to conduct.	<i>Luire,</i>	to shine, to give light.
<i>Construire,</i>	to construct.	<i>Nuire,</i>	to hurt.
<i>Cuire,</i>	to cook.	<i>Produire,</i>	to produce.
<i>Déduire,</i>	to deduct.	<i>Reconduire,</i>	to reconduct.
<i>Détruire,</i>	to destroy.	<i>Recuire,</i>	to cook again.
<i>Enduire,</i>	to plaster over.	<i>Réduire,</i>	to reduce.
<i>Induire,</i>	to induce.	<i>Reluire,</i>	to glitter, to shine.
<i>Introduire,</i>	to introduce.	<i>Séduire,</i>	to seduce.
<i>Instruire,</i>	to instruct.	<i>Traduire,</i>	to translate.

LUIRE, RELUIRE, and NUIRE, are irregular in their passive participles, where they drop the *t*; and instead of *lucit*, *reluit*, and *nuit*, they make *lui*, *relui*, and *nui*. The *passive* participle is called, by some, the *past* participle; and the active participle is, by those persons, called the *present* participle. But “I was *walking*” is certainly not *present*. One of these participles always expresses *action*, and the other does not; therefore I use the words *active* and *passive*, as applied to these participles respectively.

NINTH CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Cuire, | To Cook.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je cuis,	I cook.	nous cuisons,	we cook.
tu cuis,	thou cookest.	vous cuisinez,	you cook.
il cuit,	he cooks.	ils cuisent,	they cook.

Past Imperfect Time.

je cuisais,	I cooked.	nous cuisions,	we cooked.
tu cuisais,	thou cookedst.	vous cuisiez,	you cooked.
il cuisait,	he cooked.	ils cuisaient,	they cooked.

Past Perfect Time.

je cuisais,	I cooked.	nous eûmes cuisés,	we cooked.
tu cuisais,	thou cookedst.	vous eûtes cuisés,	you cooked.
il cuisait,	he cooked.	ils eurent cuisés,	they cooked.

Future Time.

je cuirai,	I shall cook.	nous cuirons,	we shall cook.
tu cuiras,	thou shalt cook.	vous cuirez,	you shall cook.
il cuira,	he shall cook.	ils cuiront,	they shall cook.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je cuise,	I may cook.	nous cuisions,	we may cook.
tu cuises,	thou mayest cook.	vous cuisiez,	you may cook.
il cuise,	he may cook.	ils cuisent,	they may cook.

Past Imperfect Time.

je cuirais,	I should cook.	nous cuirions,	we should cook.
tu cuirais,	thou shoulddest cook.	vous cuiriez,	you should cook.
il cuirait,	he should cook.	ils cuiraient,	they should cook.

Past Perfect Time.

je cuisisse,	I might cook.	nous cuisissions,	we might cook.
tu cuisisses,	thou mightest cook.	vous cuisissiez,	you might cook.
il cuisît,	he might cook.	ils cuisissent,	they might cook.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

cuis!	cook.	cuisons,	let us cook.
qu'il cuise,	let him cook.	cuissez,	cook.
		qu'ils cuisent,	let them cook.

PARTICIPLES.

cuisant,	cooking.
cuit,	cooked.

200. TENTH CONJUGATION. These are verbs which end in *endre* and *ondre*. There are TWENTY-THREE of them, as follows:

<i>Attendre,</i>	to wait for.	<i>Perdre,</i>	to lose.
<i>Condescendre,</i>	to condescend.	<i>Pondre,</i>	to lay eggs.
<i>Confondre,</i>	to confound.	<i>Prétendre,</i>	to pretend.
<i>Correspondre,</i>	to correspond.	<i>Refondre,</i>	to recast.
<i>Descendre,</i>	to descend.	<i>Rendre,</i>	to render.
<i>Entendre,</i>	to hear.	<i>Répandre,</i>	to spread.
<i>Étendre,</i>	to extend.	<i>Répondre,</i>	to answer.
<i>Fendre,</i>	to split.	<i>Tendre,</i>	to bend.
<i>Fondre,</i>	to melt.	<i>Tondre,</i>	to shear.
<i>Mordre,</i>	to bite.	<i>Tordre,</i>	to twist.
<i>Morfondre,</i>	to give cold to.	<i>Vendre,</i>	to sell.
<i>Pendre,</i>	to hang.		

The remarks made in paragraph 197, relative to the effect of the three different endings of the verbs of the seventh conjugation, apply to this conjugation. If it were TONDRE instead of *rendre*, I should say *je tonds, je tondais*, and so on; and in the participles I should say, *tondant* and *tondu*, instead of *vendant* and *vendu*. So it is, of course, in the other cases; and, knowing how to conjugate one verb of any conjugation, you know how to conjugate, or make the changes in, all the other verbs of that conjugation.—But, there are three verbs which are deemed to be of this conjugation, and which end in *rdre*: *perdre, mordre, tordre*. They are conjugated in the same manner as *rendre*. They are, therefore, inserted in the above list.

TENTH CONJUGATION.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Vendre, || To Sell.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je vends,	I sell.	nous vendons,	we sell.
tu vends,	thou sellest.	vous vendez,	you sell.
il vend,	he sells.	ils vendent,	they sell.

Past Imperfect Time.

Je vendais,	I sold.	nous vendions,	we sold.
tu vendais,	thou soldest.	vous vendiez,	you sold.
il vendait,	he sold.	ils vendaient,	they sold.

Past Perfect Time.

Je vendis,	I sold.	nous vendîmes,	we sold.
tu vendis,	thou soldest.	vous vendîtes,	you sold.
il vendit,	he sold.	ils vendirent,	they sold.

Future Time.

Je vendrai,	I shall sell.	nous vendrons,	we shall sell.
tu vendras,	thou shalt sell.	vous vendrez,	you shall sell.
il vendra,	he shall sell.	ils vendront,	they shall sell.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je vende,	I may sell.	nous vendions,	we may sell.
tu vendes,	thou mayest sell.	vous vendiez,	you may sell.
il vende,	he may sell.	ils vendent,	they may sell.

Past Imperfect Time.

Je vendrais,	I should sell.	nous vendrions,	we should sell.
tu vendrais,	thou shouldst sell.	vous vendriez,	you should sell.
il vendrait,	he should sell.	ils vendraient,	they should sell.

Past Perfect Time.

Je vendisse,	I might sell.	nous vendissions,	we might sell.
tu vendisses,	thou mightest sell.	vous vendissiez,	you might sell.
il vendit,	he might sell.	ils vendissent.	they might sell.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

—	—	vendons,	let us sell.
vends,	sell.	vendez,	sell.
qu'il vende,	let him sell.	qu'ils vendent,	let them sell.

PARTICIPLES.

vendant,	selling.
vendu,	sold.

201. IRREGULAR VERBS.—This is the **THIRD TASK**; and it is no trifling one.—Having done with the ten conjugations of **Regular Verbs**, I have next to treat of the *Irregulars*, of which I have spoken before, especially in paragraph 122. In paragraph 191, I observed, that there were some *Irregulars* of every one of the conjugations; that is to say, that there were some verbs ending in *er*, some in *ir*, and in all the rest that were irregular; or, in other words, that did not undergo the same variation as the regular ones. Let us take a proof in **TROUVER** (to find) and **ALLER** (to go).

INFINITIVE MODE.

<i>Trouver,</i>		To Find.
<i>Aller,</i>		To Go.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

<i>je trouve,</i>		I find.		<i>nous trouvons,</i>		we find.
<i>je vais,</i>		I go.		<i>nous allons,</i>		we go.
<i>tu trouves,</i>		thou findest.		<i>vous trouvez,</i>		you find.
<i>tu vas,</i>		thou goest.		<i>vous allez,</i>		you go.
<i>il trouve,</i>		he finds.		<i>ils trouvent,</i>		they find
<i>il va,</i>		he goes.		<i>ils vont,</i>		they go.

You see here how different is the manner of making the changes in **ALLER** from that of making them in **TROUVER**. Indeed, you see, in some of the persons, not one letter of the word **ALLER** left, as in *vais* and *vont*. Therefore, seeing the changes in it are not made in the same way that they are in **TROUVER**, which is a regular verb, **ALLER** is called an *Irregular verb*. As I observed to you before, there are some of these of every one of the conjugations; but I shall now give a list of the whole of the *Irregulars*, placed in *alphabetical* order. Afterwards I shall conjugate them fully;

but, first of all, I shall give a list of them. There are, however, a few other remarks to make in the way of preface to these Irregulars. There are, as you will see, THIRTY-NINE Irregulars in the list; but many of them have others *derived* from them; *écrire*, to write; *souscrire*, to subscribe (or *underwrite*); and so on. Then, there are some, even in the alphabetical list of Irregulars, which are *defective*; that is to say, which are not used except in *some parts* of them; that is, in part of the *modes*, or part of the *times*. These defective parts will be pointed out in the conjugations, but the sooner you are aware of the circumstance the better. I shall now give the list of *Irregulars*, with those verbs that are derived from them. This list you will first read all through, without looking at the conjugations. Then you are to go over the list again, and you are to stop at each verb and turn to its conjugation, and go through that. Then go to the next verb; and so on, until you have in this way gone through the whole list. The conjugations will be easily referred to, because, besides the alphabetical order, they will be numbered as paragraphs, and I shall refer to them as such. I do not put *avoir* and *être* in this list; because, though they are *Irregulars*, all things relating to them are fully explained elsewhere.

ACQUÉRIR: *To Acquire*.—The following are conjugated in the same manner: *conquérir*, *enquérir*, *requérir*, and *quérir*. These are all *defective* verbs; that is, they are used in only part of their forms. Practice will soon teach you this.—See conjugation, Paragraph 202.

ALLER: *To Go*.—This is the only irregular verb of the first conjugation. There is, indeed, *Puer*,

which formerly was irregular in the three persons singular of the present of the indicative ; but is now written *je pue, tu pues, il pue*, and so forth.

—See Paragraph 203.

S'ASSEOIR : *To Sit down*.—It has other meanings ; but this you will learn from the *Dictionary* ; and, besides, care will be taken to introduce words like this into the Exercises ; so that, by the time that you have gone through the Grammar and the Exercises, you will be well acquainted with these distinctions. *Surseoir* is conjugated in the same way, and also *seoir* ; but it is defective ; and neither is much in use.—See Paragraph 204.

BATTRE : *To Beat*.—The verbs *abattre*, to beat, or put down ; *combattre*, *se débattre*, *s'abattre*, *rabattre*, and *rebattre*, are all conjugated like *battre*. They all, indeed, belong to that word.—See Paragraph 205.

BOIRE : *To Drink*.—See Paragraph 206.

BOUILLIR : *To Boil*.—This verb is, in French, always *neuter*. The French do not use it as we do : they use it only in the third person ; as, *il bout*, it boils. They do not say, *I boil the cabbage* ; but, *je fais bouillir le chou* ; that is, I make the cabbage boil. The verb *rebouillir* means, to boil again, and it is, of course, conjugated like *bouillir*.—See Paragraph 207.

CONCLURE : *To Conclude*.—*Exclure* is conjugated in the same way, except that, in the passive participle, we sometimes write *exclus* for the masculine, and *excluse* for the feminine.—See Paragraph 208.

CONVAINCRE: *To Convince*, is conjugated like *vaincre*; but it is little used in the present of the indicative mode.—See Paragraph 209.

COUDRE: *To Sew*.—It is hardly necessary to say, that *découdre*, to unsew, and *recoudre*, to sew again, are conjugated in the same way as *coudre*.—See Paragraph 210.

COURIR: *To Run*.—*Accourir*, *concourir*, *encourir*, *discourir*, *parcourir*, *recourir*, *secourir*, are conjugated like *courir*. They all come from it, and belong to it.—See Paragraph 211.

CROIRE: *To Believe*.—There is the verb *accroire*; but it is used only in the infinitive. It must have *faire* with it; and then it answers to our *make believe*.—See Paragraph 212.

CUEILLIR: *To Gather*.—*Recueillir*, to gather together, or to collect, is conjugated like *cueillir*, as well as *accueillir*, to welcome, to receive kindly; but in some of its tenses we prefer making use of the verb *faire* with the noun *accueil*.—See Paragraph 213.

DIRE: *To Say*.—This verb also means *to tell*. There are eight other verbs, which are conjugated like *Dire*; namely, *contredire*, *se dédire*, *médire*, *maudire*, *interdire*, *prédire*, *redire*, *confire*. But observe, all of them, except *redire*, make, in the second person plural of the present time and indicative mode, *disez* instead of *dites*. Observe also, that *maudire* takes the double *s*, where there are other letters coming after the *s*: as, je *maudis*, I curse; je *maudissais*, I cursed.—See Paragraph 214.

DORMIR: *To Sleep*.—The same manner of con-

jugating is applied to *endormir*, *s'endormir*, *redormir*, and *se rendormir*.—See Paragraph 215.

ÉCRIRE: *To Write*.—Eight others are conjugated like *écrire*; namely, *décrire*, *inscrire*, *prescrire*, *proscrire*, *récrire*, *souscrire*, *transcrire*, *circonscrire*. They are all, in fact, the same word, with a *preposition put before each*; and they mean, to write *of*, to write *in*, to write *against*, to write *again*, to write *under*, to write *in another place*, to write *round about*. Besides these, there is the verb *frire*, to fry, conjugated like *écrire*; but *frire* is seldom used except in the singular of the indicative mode, the future, the conditional, and the passive participle. To supply the tenses that are wanted, the French make use of the word *faire*, which they join to the infinitive, as in *bouillir*.—See Paragraph 216.

FUIR: *To Flee*.—There is *s'enfuir*, which means to flee *from it*, *from this place*, *from that place*, *from something*. This verb is seldom in use in the past perfect times.—See Paragraph 217.

HAÏR: *To Hate*.—This verb, like the last, is seldom used in the past perfect times.—See Paragraph 218.

LIRE: *To Read*.—*Élire*, *relire*, and *rélire*, are conjugated in the same manner. There are two other verbs, *circoncire* and *suffire*, to *circumcise* and to *suffice*, which are also conjugated like *lire*, except that, in its passive participle, the first makes *circoncis*, and the last *suffi*; and also except that, in the past perfect times, they make *je circoncis*, *je suffis*. The past perfect *circon-*

cisse, suffisse; and the participle active, *circoncisant*, are never used, on account of their harsh sound.—See Paragraph 219.

METTRE: *To Put*.—This is a verb of great use. The following eleven, all proceeding from it, are conjugated in the same way: *admettre, commettre, démettre, omettre, s'entremettre, permettre, promettre, remettre, compromettre, soumettre, transmettre*.—See Paragraph 220.

MOUDRE: *To Grind*.—*Émoudre* and *remoudre* are conjugated like *moudre*.—See Paragraph 221.

MOURIR: *To Die*.—See Paragraph 222.

MOUVOIR: *To Move*.—Not much used. *Émouvoir, démouvoir, promouvoir, apparoir, choir, échoir, déchoir*, are used merely in the infinitive. They are technical terms, and very rarely used. *Mouvoir* itself is nearly as little used. The verb that is generally made use of where we make use of *move*, is the regular, *remuer*.—See Paragraph 223.

NAÎTRE: *To be Born*.—*Renaître* is conjugated like *naître*; but has no past perfect time. *Paître* and *repaître* are conjugated in the same way, except that in the past perfect of the subjunctive they make *pusse* and *repusse*; but these times are never used. Their passive participles are *pu* and *repu*.—See Paragraph 224.

OUVRIR: *To Open*.—Conjugated in the same manner are *souffrir, offrir, mésoffrir, couvrir*, and *découvrir*.—See Paragraph 225.

PLAIRE: *To Please*.—There are three others, which are conjugated in the same manner: *dé-*

plaire, taire, and complaire.—See Paragraph 226.

POUVOIR: *To be Able; or To have Power*.—

This is a word of great use. It sometimes supplies the place of our *can* and *could*, and *may* and *might*. This is one of the most important words in the French language; and you ought to know every part of it as well as you know your own name.—See Paragraph 227.

PRENDRE: *To Take*.—The verbs which are derived from this are conjugated like it. They are, *apprendre, désapprendre, comprendre, entreprendre, se méprendre, reprendre, and surprendre*.—See Paragraph 228.

RÉSoudre: *To Resolve*.—*Absoudre* and *dissoudre* follow the same manner of conjugation. They are not, however, in use in the past perfect times, and their passive participles are *absous* and *dissous*. *Soudre* is used only in the infinitive.—See Paragraph 229.

REVÊTIR: *To Invest*.—*Vêtir* and *ouïr* follow, as far as they go, the conjugation of *revêtir*; but the first is used only in the infinitive, and the latter only in the passive participle.—See Paragraph 230.

RIRE: *To Laugh*.—To smile is *sourire*, which is conjugated in the same way as *rire*.—See Paragraph 231.

ROMPRE: *To Break*.—*Corrompre* and *interrompre* are conjugated like *rompre*.—See Paragraph 232.

SAVOIR: *To Know*.—This is a word of great use in the French language.—See Paragraph 233.

SUIVRE: To Follow.—*Poursuivre* and *s'ensuivre* are conjugated in the same way.—See Paragraph 234.

TRAIRE: To Milk.—It means also *to draw*; and the French never say, *tirer une vache* (draw a cow), but they say, *traire une vache*. *Abstraire*, *distraindre*, *extraire*, *soustraire*, and *rentraire*, are, as far as they go, conjugated in the same manner. But they are all defective, more or less. The first four have only the infinitive, and the singular of the present and future, in use. The last has, like *traire*, no past perfect times in use.—See Paragraph 235.

TRESSAILLIR: To Burst Out, or Start.—*Saillir* means to *jut out*, *leap forth*, or *project*. *Assaillir*, to *assail*, or *fall upon*.—See Paragraph 236.

VALOIR: To be Worth.—*Revaloir* and *prévaloir* are conjugated like *valoir*, except that the latter makes *prévale*, and not *prévaille*, in the present time of the subjunctive mode.—See Paragraph 237.

VIVRE: To Live.—*Revivre* and *survivre* are conjugated like *vivre*.—See Paragraph 238.

VOIR: To See.—There are conjugated in the same manner as *voir*, these four: *entrevoir*, *revoir*, *pouvoir*, and *prévoir*; but observe, the two latter have their future and their past imperfect of the subjunctive in *oirai*, *oirais*, and so forth; and not in *errai*, *errais*, like *voir*. Besides this, *pouvoir* has its past perfects in *us* and *usse*, and not in *is* and *isse*.—See Paragraph 239.

VOULOIR: To be, Willing.—This verb, like

pouvoir, is of vast importance in the French language. It is used very frequently where our *will* occurs. It answers also to our verb *to wish*.

—See Paragraph 240.

Thus ends the list of Irregular Verbs. There remain a few *defectives*, just to notice, but not to dwell long upon. *Braire, fêrir, bruire, faillir, clorre, éclore, gésir, tistre*. These are all verbs; but too defective to merit any attempt at conjugating them. They are become a sort of *adjectives*. At any rate, when they occur, which is very seldom, the Dictionary will explain their meaning. —Now follow, in alphabetical order, the full conjugations of the Irregulars according to the foregoing list. I look upon the conjugation of each of the verbs as forming a *paragraph*, and I number the conjugations accordingly.

202 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Acquérir || To Acquire.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

j'acquiers,	I acquire.	nous acquérons,	we acquire.
tu acquiers,	thou acquirest.	vous acquérez,	you acquire.
il acquiert,	he acquires.	ils acquèrent,	they acquire.

Past Imperfect Time.

j'acquérâs,	I acquired.	nous acquérions,	we acquired.
tu acquérâs,	thou acquiredst.	vous acquériez,	you acquired.
il acquérait,	he acquired.	ils acquéraient,	they acquired.

Past Perfect Time.

j'acquis,	I acquired.	nous acquîmes,	we acquired.
tu acquis,	thou acquiredst.	vous acquîtes,	you acquired.
il acquit,	he acquired.	ils acquîrent,	they acquired.

Future Time.

j'acquerrai,	I shall acquire.	nous acquerrons,	we shall acquire.
tu acquerras,	thou shalt acquire.	vous acquériez,	you shall acquire.
il acquerra,	he shall acquire.	ils acquerront,	they shall acquire.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

j'acquière,	I may acquire,	nous acquérions,	we may acquire.
tu acquières,	thou mayest acquire.	vous acquériez,	you may acquire.
il acquière,	he may acquire.	ils acquièrent,	they may acquire.

Past Imperfect Time.

j'acquerrais,	I should acquire.	nous acquerrions,	we should acquire.
tu acquerrais,	thou shouldst acquire.	vous acqueriez,	you should acquire.
il acquerrait,	he should acquire.	ils acquerraient,	they should acquire.

Past Perfect Time.

j'acquisse,	I might acquire.	nous acquissions,	we might acquire.
tu acquisses,	thou mightest acquire.	vous acquissiez,	you might acquire.
il acquit,	he might acquire.	ils acquissent,	they might acquire.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

acquiers,	acquire.	acquérons,	let us acquire.
qu'il acquière,	let him acquire.	acquérez,	acquire.
		qu'ils acquièrent,	let them acquire.

PARTICIPLES.

acquérant,	acquiring.
acquis,	acquired.

N.

203 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Aller, ¶ To Go.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je vais,	I go.	nous allons,	we go.
tu vas,	thou goest.	vous allez,	you go.
il va,	he goes.	ils vont,	they go.

Past Imperfect Time.

j'allais,	I went.	nous allions,	we went.
tu allais,	thou wentest.	vous alliez,	you went.
il allait,	he went.	ils allaient,	they went.

Past Perfect Time.

j'allai,	I went.	nous allâmes,	we went.
tu allas,	thou wentest.	vous allâtes,	you went.
il alla,	he went.	ils allèrent,	they went.

20

Future Time.

j'irai,	I shall go.	nous irons,	we shall go.
tu iras,	thou shalt go.	vous irez,	you shall go.
il ira,	he shall go.	ils iront,	they shall go.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

j'aile,	I may go.	nous allions,	we may go.
tu ailles,	thou mayest go.	vous alliez,	you may go.
il aille,	he may go.	ils aillent,	they may go.

Past Imperfect Time.

j'irais,	I should go.	nous irions,	we should go.
tu irais,	thou shouldst go.	vous iriez,	you should go.
il irait,	he should go.	ils iraient,	they should go.

Past Perfect Time.

j'allasse,	I might go.	nous allussions,	we might go.
tu allasses,	thou mightest go.	vous allassiez,	you might go.
il allât,	he might go.	ils allassent,	they might go.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

va,	go.	allons,	let us go.
qu'il aille,	let him go.	allez,	go.
		qu'ils aillent,	let them go.

PARTICIPLES

allant, ¶ going.
allé, ¶ gone.

204 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

S'Asseoir, || To Sit down.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je m'assieds,	I sit.	nous nous asseyons,	we sit.
tu t'assieds,	thou sittest.	vous vous asseyez,	you sit.
il s'assied,	he sits.	ils s'asscient,	they sit.

Past Imperfect Time.

je m'asseyois,	I sat.	nous nous asseyions,	we sat.
tu t'asseyois,	thou satest.	vous vous asseyiez,	you sat.
il s'asseyoit,	he sat.	ils s'asseyaient,	they sat.

Past Perfect Time.

je m'assis,	I sat.	nous nous assimes,	we sat.
tu t'assis,	thou satest.	vous vous assîtes,	you sat.
il s'assit,	he sat.	ils s'assirent,	they sat.

Future Time.

je m'asseierai,	I shall sit.	nous nous asseierons,	we shall sit.
tu t'asseieras,	thou shalt sit.	vous vous asseierez,	you shall sit.
il s'asseiera,	he shall sit.	ils s'asseieront,	they shall sit.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je m'asseie,	I may sit.	nous nous asseyions,	we may sit.
tu t'asseies,	thou mayest sit.	vous vous asseyiez,	you may sit.
il s'asseie,	he may sit.	ils s'asscient,	they may sit.

Past Imperfect Time.

je m'asseierais,	I should sit.	nous nous asseierions,	we should sit.
tu t'asseierais,	thou shouldst sit.	vous vous asseieriez,	you should sit.
il s'asseierait,	he should sit.	ils s'asseieraient,	they should sit.

Past Perfect Time.

je m'assisse,	I might sit.	nous nous assissions,	we might sit.
tu t'assisses,	thou mightest sit.	vous vous assissiez,	you might sit.
il s'as-it,	he might sit.	ils s'assissent,	they might sit.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

assieds-toi,	sit.	asseyons-nous,	let us sit.
qu'il s'asseie,	let him sit.	asseyez-vous,	sit.
		qu'ils s'asscient,	let them sit.

PARTICIPLES.

s'asseyant,	sitting.
assis,	sat.

205 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Battre, || To Beat

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je bats,	I beat.	nous battons,	we beat.
tu bats,	thou beatest.	vous battez,	you beat.
il bat,	he beats.	ils battent,	they beat.

Past Imperfect Time.

je battais,	I beat.	nous battions,	we beat.
tu battais,	thou beatest.	vous battiez,	you beat.
il battait,	he beat.	ils battaient,	they beat.

Past Perfect Time.

je battis,	I beat.	nous battîmes,	we beat.
tu battis,	thou beatest.	vous battîtes,	you beat.
il battit,	he beat.	ils battirent,	they beat.

Future Time.

je battrai,	I shall beat.	nous battrons,	we shall beat.
tu battras,	thou shalt beat	vous battrez,	you shall beat.
il battrà,	he shall beat.	ils battront,	they shall beat.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je batte,	I may beat.	nous battions,	we may beat.
tu battes,	thou mayest beat.	vous battiez,	you may beat.
il batte,	he may beat.	ils battent,	they may beat.

Past Imperfect Time.

je battrais,	I should beat.	nous battrions,	we should beat.
tu battrais,	thou shouldst beat.	vous battriez,	you should beat.
il battrait,	he should beat.	ils battraient,	they should beat.

Past Perfect Time.

je battisse,	I might beat.	nous battissions,	we might beat.
tu battisses,	thou mightest beat.	vous battissiez,	you might beat.
il battît,	he might beat.	ils battissent,	they might beat.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

bats,	--	battons,	let us beat.
qu'il batte,	beat.	battez,	beat.
	let him beat	qu'ils battent,	let them beat.

PARTICIPLES.

battant,	beating.
battu,	beaten.

206 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Boire, | To Drink.

INDICATIVE MODE.*

Present Time.

je bois,	I drink.	nous buvons,	we drink.
tu bois,	thou drinkest.	vous buvez,	you drink.
il boit,	he drinks.	ils boivent,	they drink.

Past Imperfect Time.

je buvais,	I drank.	nous buvions,	we drank.
tu buvais,	thou drankest.	vous buviez,	you drank.
il buvait,	he drank.	ils buvaient,	they drank.

Past Perfect Time.

je bus,	I drank.	nous bûmes,	we drank.
tu bus,	thou drankest.	vous bûtes,	you drank.
il but,	he drank.	ils burent,	they drank.

Future Time.

je boirai,	I shall drink.	nous boirons,	we shall drink.
tu boiras,	thou shalt drink.	vous boirez,	you shall drink.
il boira,	he shall drink.	ils boiront,	they shall drink.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je boive,	I may drink.	nous buvions,	we may drink.
tu boives,	thou mayest drink.	vous buviez,	you may drink.
il boive,	he may drink.	ils boivent,	they may drink.

Past Imperfect Time.

je boirais,	I should drink.	nous boirions,	we should drink.
tu boirais,	thou shouldst drink.	vous boiriez,	you should drink.
il boirait,	he should drink.	ils boiraient,	they should drink.

Past Perfect Time.

je busse,	I might drink.	nous bussions,	we might drink.
tu bussés,	thou mightest drink.	vous bussiez,	you might drink.
il bût,	he might drink.	ils bussent,	they might drink.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

bois,	drink.	buvons,	let us drink.
qu'il boive,	let him drink.	buvez,	drink.
		qu'ils boivent,	let them drink.

PARTICIPLES.

buvant,	drinking.
bu,	drunk.

207 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Bouillir, ¶ To Boil.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je bous,	I boil.	nous bouillons,	we boil.
tu bous,	thou bolleest.	vous bouillez,	you boi.
il bout,	he boils.	ils bouillent,	they boil.

Past Imperfect Time.

je bouillais,	I boiled.	nous bouillions,	we boiled.
tu bouillais,	thou boiledst.	vous bouilliez,	you boiled.
il bouillait,	he boiled.	ils bouillaient,	they boiled.

Past Perfect Time.

je bouillis,	I boiled.	nous bouillîmes,	we boiled.
tu bouillis,	thou boiledst.	vous bouillîtes,	you boiled.
il bouillit,	he boiled.	ils bouillirent,	they boiled.

Future Time.

je bouillirai,	I shall boil.	nous bouillirons,	we shall boil.
tu bouilliras,	thou shalt boil.	vous bouillirez,	you shall boil.
il bouillira,	he shall boil.	ils bouilliront,	they shall boil.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je bouille,	I may boil.	nous bouillions,	we may boil.
tu bouilles,	thou mayest boil.	vous bouilliez,	you may boil.
il bouille,	he may boil.	ils bouillent,	they may boil.

Past Imperfect Time.

je bouillirais,	I should boil.	nous bouillirions,	we should boil.
tu bouillirais,	thou shouldest boil.	vous bouilliriez,	you should boil.
il bouillirait,	he should boil.	ils bouilliraient,	they should boil.

Past Perfect Time.

je bouillisse,	I might boil.	nous bouillissions,	we might boil.
tu bouillisses,	thou mightest boil.	vous bouillissiez,	you might boil.
il bouillit,	he might boil.	ils bouillissent,	they might boil.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

—	—	bouillons,	let us boil.
bous,	boil.	bouillez,	boil.
qu'il bouille,	let him boil.	qu'ils bouillent,	let them boil.

PARTICIPLES.

bouillant,	boiling.
bouilli,	boiled.

03 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Conclure, ∞ To Conclude.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je conclus,	I conclude.	nous concluons,	we conclude.
tu conclus,	thou concludest.	vous concluez,	you conclude.
il conclut,	he concludes.	ils concluent,	they conclude.

Past Imperfect Time.

je conclusais,	I concluded.	nous concluions,	we concluded.
tu conclusais,	thou concludedst.	vous concluiez,	you concluded.
il concluait,	he concluded.	ils concluaient,	they concluded.

Past Perfect Time.

je conclus,	I concluded.	nous conclûmes,	we concluded.
tu conclus,	thou concludedst.	vous conclûtes,	you concluded.
il conclut,	he concluded.	ils conclurent,	they concluded.

Future Time.

je conclurai,	I shall conclude.	nous conclurons,	we shall conclude.
tu concluras,	thou shalt conclude.	vous conclurez,	you shall conclude.
il conclura,	he shall conclude.	ils concluront,	they shall conclude.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je conclue,	I may conclude.	nous concluions,	we may conclude.
tu conclues,	thou mayest conclude.	vous concluez,	you may conclude.
il conclue,	he may conclude.	ils concluent,	they may conclude.

Past Imperfect Time.

je conclurais,	I should conclude.	nous conclurions,	we should conclude.
tu conclurais,	thou shouldst conclude.	vous concluriez,	you should conclude.
il conclurait,	he should conclude.	ils concluraient,	they should conclude.

Past Perfect Time.

je conclusse,	I might conclude.	nous conclussions,	we might conclude.
tu conclusses,	thou mightest conclude.	vous conclussiez,	you might conclude.
il conclût,	he might conclude.	ils conclussent,	they might conclude.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

conclus,	conclude.	concluons,	let us conclude.
qu'il conclue,	let him conclude.	concluez,	conclude.
		qu'ils concluent,	let them conclude.

PARTICIPLES.

concluant,	concluding.
conclu,	concluded.

209 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Convaincre || To Convince.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je convaincs,	I convince.	nous convainquons,	we convince.
tu convaincs,	thou convincest.	vous convainquez,	you convince.
il convainc,	he convinces.	ils convainquent,	they convince.

Past Imperfect Time.

je convainquais,	I convinced.	nous convainquions,	we convinced.
tu convainquais,	thou convincedst.	vous convainquiez,	you convinced.
il convainquait,	he convinced.	ils convainquaient,	they convinced.

Past Perfect Time.

je convainquis,	I convinced.	nous convainquîmes,	we convinced.
tu convainquis,	thou convincedst.	vous convainquîtes,	you convinced.
il convainquit,	he convinced.	ils convainquirent,	they convinced.

Future Time.

je convaincrai,	I shall convince.	nous convaincrons,	we shall convince.
tu convaincras,	thou shalt convince.	vous convaincrez,	you shall convince.
il convaincra,	he shall convince.	ils convaincront,	they shall convince.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je convainque,	I may convince.	nous convainquions,	we may convince.
tu convainques,	thou mayest convince.	vous convainquiez,	you may convince.
il convainque,	he may convince.	ils convainquent,	they may convince.

Past Imperfect Time.

je convaincrais,	I should convince.	nous convaincions,	we should convince.
tu convaincrais,	thou shoulddest convince.	vous convaincriez,	you should convince.
il convaincrait,	he should convince.	ils convaincraient,	they should convince.

Past Perfect Time.

je convainquisse,	I might convince.	nous convainquissions,	we might convince.
tu convainquisses,	thou mightest convince.	vous convainquissiez,	you might convince.
il convainquît,	he might convince.	ils convainquissent,	they might convince.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

convains,	convince.	convainquons,	let us convince.
qu'il convainque,	let him convince.	convainquez,	convince.
		qu'ils convainquent,	let them convince.

PARTICIPLES.

convainquant,	convincing.
convaincu,	convinced.

210 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Coudre, ¶ To Sew.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je couds,	I sew.	nous cousons,	we sew.
tu couds,	thou sewest.	vous cousez,	you sew.
il coud,	he sews.	ils cousent,	they sew.

Past Imperfect Time.

je cousais,	I sewed.	nous cousions,	we sewed.
tu cousais,	thou sewedst.	vous cousiez,	you sewed.
il cousait,	he sewed.	ils cousaient,	they sewed.

Past Perfect Time.

je cousis,	I sewed.	nous cousîmes,	we sewed.
tu cousis,	thou sewedst.	vous cousîtes,	you sewed.
il cousit,	he sewed.	ils cousirent,	they sewed.

Future Time.

je coudrai,	I shall sew.	nous coudrons,	we shall sew.
tu coudras,	thou shalt sew.	vous coudrez,	you shall sew.
il coudra,	he shall sew.	ils coudront,	they shall sew

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je couse,	I may sew.	nous cousions,	we may sew.
tu couses,	thou mayest sew.	vous cousiez,	you may sew.
il couse,	he may sew.	ils cousent,	they may sew.

Past Imperfect Time.

je coudrais,	I should sew.	nous coudrions,	we should sew.
tu coudrais,	thou shouldst sew.	vous coudriez,	you should sew.
il coudrait,	he should sew.	ils coudraient,	they should sew.

Past Perfect Time.

je cousisse,	I might sew.	nous cousissions,	we might sew.
tu cousisses,	thou mightest sew.	vous cousissiez,	you might sew.
il cousît,	he might sew.	ils cousissent,	they might sew.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

couds,	sew.	cousons,	let us sew.
qu'il couse,	let him sew.	cousez,	sew.
		qu'ils cousent,	let them sew.

PARTICIPLES.

cousant,	sewing.
cousu,	sewed.

211 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Courir, || To Run.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je cours,	I run.	nous courons,	we run.
tu cours,	thou runnest.	vous courez,	you run.
il court,	he runs.	ils courent,	they run.

Past Imperfect Time.

je courais,	I ran.	nous courions,	we ran.
tu courais,	thou rankest.	vous couriez,	you ran.
il courait,	he ran.	ils couraient,	they ran.

Past Perfect Time.

je courus,	I ran.	nous courûmes,	we ran.
tu courus,	thou rankest.	vous courûtes,	you ran.
il courut,	he ran.	ils coururent,	they ran.

Future Time.

je courrai	I shall run.	nous courrons,	we shall run.
tu courras,	thou shalt run.	vous courrez,	you shall run.
il courra,	he shall run.	ils courront,	they shall run.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je coure,	I may run.	nous courions,	we may run.
tu coures,	thou mayest run.	vous couriez,	you may run.
il coure,	he may run.	ils courent,	they may run.

Past Imperfect Time.

je courrais,	I should run.	nous courrions,	we should run.
tu courrais,	thou shouldest run.	vous courriez,	you should run.
il courrait,	he should run.	ils courraient,	they should run.

Past Perfect Time.

je courusse,	I might run.	nous courrussions,	we might run.
tu courusses,	thou mightest run.	vous courrussiez,	you might run.
il courût,	he might run.	ils courrussent,	they might run.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

—	—	courons,	let us run.
cours,	run.	courez,	run.
qu'il coure,	let him run.	qu'ils courent,	let them run.

PARTICIPLES.

courant,	running.
cou <u>u</u> ,	run <u>u</u> .

212 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Croire, I To Believe.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je crois,	I believe.	nous croyons,	we believe.
tu crois,	thou believest.	vous croyez,	you believe.
il croit,	he believes.	ils croient,	they believe.

Past Imperfect Time.

je croyais,	I believed.	nous croyions,	we believed.
tu croyais,	thou believedst.	vous croyiez,	you believed.
il croyait,	he believed.	ils croyaient,	they believed.

Past Perfect Time.

je crus,	I believed.	nous crûmes,	we believed.
tu crus,	thou believedst.	vous crûtes,	you believed.
il crut,	he believed.	ils crurent,	they believed.

Future Time.

je croirai,	I shall believe.	nous croirons,	we shall believe.
tu croiras,	thou shalt believe.	vous croirez,	you shall believe.
il croira,	he shall believe.	ils croiront,	they shall believe.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je croie,	I may believe.	nous croyions,	we may believe.
tu croies,	thou mayest believe.	vous croyiez,	you may believe.
il croie,	he may believe.	ils croient,	they may believe.

Past Imperfect Time.

je croirais,	I should believe.	nous croirions,	we should believe.
tu croirais,	thou shouldiest believe.	vous croiriez,	you should believe.
il croirait,	he should believe.	ils croiraient,	they should believe.

Past Perfect Time.

je crusse,	I might believe.	nous crussions,	we might believe.
tu crusses,	thou mightest believe.	vous crussiez,	you might believe.
il crût,	he might believe.	ils crussent,	they might believe.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

crois,	believe.	croyons,	let us believe.
qu'il croie,	let him believe.	croyez,	believe.
		qu'ils croient,	let them believe.

PARTICIPLES.

croyant,	believing.
cru,	believed.

213 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Cueillir, | To Gather.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je cueille,	I gather.	nous cueillons,	we gather.
tu cueilles,	thou gatherest.	vous cueillez,	you gather.
il cueille,	he gathers.	ils cueillent,	they gather.

Past Imperfect Time.

je cueillais,	I gathered.	nous cueillions,	we gathered.
tu cueillais,	thou gatheredst.	vous cueilliez,	you gathered.
il cueillait,	he gathered.	ils cueillaient,	they gathered.

Past Perfect Time.

je cueillis,	I gathered.	nous cueillîmes,	we gathered.
tu cueillis,	thou gatheredst.	vous cueillîtes,	you gathered.
il cueillit,	he gathered.	ils cueillirent,	they gathered.

Future Time.

je cueillerai,	I shall gather.	nous cueillerons,	we shall gather.
tu cueilleras,	thou shalt gather.	vous cueillerez,	you shall gather.
il cueillera,	he shall gather.	ils cueilleront,	they shall gather.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je cueille,	I may gather.	nous cueillions,	we may gather.
tu cueilles,	thou mayest gather.	vous cueilliez,	you may gather.
il cueille,	he may gather.	ils cueillent,	they may gather.

Past Imperfect Time.

je cueillerais,	I should gather.	nous cueillerions,	we should gather.
tu cueillerais,	thou shoulddest gather.	vous cueilleriez,	you should gather.
il cueillerait,	he should gather.	ils cueilleraient,	they should gather.

Past Perfect Time.

je cueilliſſe,	I might gather. *	nous cueilliſſions,	we might gather.
tu cueilliſſes,	thou mightest gather.	vous cueilliſſiez,	you might gather.
il cueillit,	he might gather.	ils cueilliſſent,	they might gather.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

cueilles,	gather.	cueillons,	let us gather.
qu'il cueille,	let him gather.	cueillez,	gather.
		qu'ils cueillent,	let them gather.

PARTICIPLES.

cueillant,	gathering
cueilli,	gathered.

214 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Dire, || To Say.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je dis,	I say.	nous disons,	we say.
tu dis,	thou sayest.	vous dites,	you say.
il dit,	he says.	ils disent,	they say.

Past Imperfect Time.

je disais,	I said.	nous disions,	we said.
tu disais,	thou saidst.	vous disiez,	you said.
il disait,	he said.	ils disaient,	they said.

Past Perfect Time.

je dis,	I said.	nous disions ,	we said.
tu dis,	thou saidst.	vous dites,	you said.
il dit,	he said.	ils dirent,	they said.

Future Time.

je dirai,	I shall say.	nous dirons,	we shall say.
tu diras,	thou shalt say.	vous direz,	you shall say.
il dira,	he shall say.	ils diront,	they shall say.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je dise,	I may say.	nous disions,	we may say.
tu dises,	thou mayest say.	vous disiez,	you may say.
il dise,	he may say.	ils disent,	they may say.

Past Imperfect Time.

je dirais,	I should say.	nous dirions,	we should say.
tu dirais,	thou shouldst say.	vous diriez,	you should say.
il dirait,	he should say.	ils diraient,	they should say.

Past Perfect Time.

je disse,	I might say.	nous dissions,	we might say.
tu dissés,	thou mightest say.	vous dissiez,	you might say.
il dit,	he might say.	ils dissent,	they might say.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

dis,	say.	disons,	let us say.
qu'il dise,	let him say.	dites,	say.
		qu'ils disent,	let them say.

PARTICIPLES.

disant,	saying.
dit,	said.

215 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Dormir, ¶ To Sleep.

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Time.

je dors,	I sleep.	nous dormons,	we sleep.
tu dors,	thou sleepest.	vous dormez,	you sleep.
il dort,	he sleeps.	ils dorment,	they sleep.

Past Imperfect Time.

je dormais,	I slept.	nous dormions,	we slept.
tu dormais,	thou sleepest.	vous dormiez,	you slept.
il dormait,	he slept.	ils dormaient,	they slept.

Past Perfect Time.

je dormis,	I slept.	nous dormîmes,	we slept.
tu dormis,	thou sleepest.	vous dormîtes,	you slept.
il dormit,	he slept	ils dormirent,	they slept.

Future Time.

je dormirai,	I shall sleep.	nous dormirons,	we shall sleep.
tu dormiras,	thou shalt sleep.	vous dormirez,	you shall sleep.
il dormira,	he shall sleep.	ils dormiront,	they shall sleep.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je dorme,	I may sleep.	nous dormions,	we may sleep.
tu dormes,	thou mayest sleep.	vous dormiez,	you may sleep.
il dorme.	he may sleep.	ils dorment,	they may sleep.

Past Imperfect Time.

je dormirais,	I should sleep.	nous dormirions,	we should sleep.
tu dormirais,	thou shouldst sleep.	vous dormiriez,	you should sleep.
il dormirait,	he should sleep.	ils dormirait,	they should sleep.

Past Perfect Time.

je dormisse,	I might sleep.	nous dormissions,	we might sleep.
tu dormisses,	thou mightest sleep.	vous dormissiez,	you might sleep.
il dormit,	he might sleep.	ils dormissent,	they might sleep.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

dors,	sleep.	dormons,	let us sleep.
qu'il dorme,	let him sleep.	dormez,	sleep.
		qu'ils dorment,	let them sleep.

PARTICIPLES.

dormant,	sleeping.
dormi,	slept.

216 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Écrire, | To Write.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

j'écris,	I write.	nous écrivons,	we write.
tu écris,	thou writest.	vous écrivez,	you write.
il écrit,	he writes.	ils écrivent,	they write.

Past Imperfect Time.

j'écrivais,	I wrote.	nous écrivions,	we wrote.
tu écrivais,	thou wrotest.	vous écriviez,	you wrote.
il écrivait,	he wrote.	ils écrivaint,	they wrote.

Past Perfect Time.

j'écrivis,	I wrote.	nous écrivîmes,	we wrote.
tu écrivis,	thou wrotest.	vous écrivîtes,	you wrote.
il écrivit,	he wrote.	ils écrivirent,	they wrote.

Future Time.

j'écrirai,	I shall write.	nous écrirons,	we shall write.
tu écriras,	thou shalt write.	vous écrirez,	you shall write.
il écrira,	he shall write.	ils écriront,	they shall write.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

j'écrive,	I may write.	nous écrivions,	we may write.
tu écrives,	thou mayest write.	vous écriviez,	you may write.
il écrive,	he may write.	ils écrivent,	they may write.

Past Imperfect Time.

j'écrirais,	I should write.	nous écrivions,	we should write.
tu écrirais,	thou shouldst write.	vous écriviez,	you should write.
il écrirait,	he should write.	ils écriraient,	they should write.

Past Perfect Time.

j'écrivisse,	I might write.	nous écrivissions,	we might write.
tu écrivisses,	thou mightest write.	vous écrivissiez,	you might write.
il écrivît,	he might write.	ils écrivissent,	they might write.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

écris,	write.	écrivons,	let us write.
qu'il écrive,	let him write.	écrivez,	write.
		qu'ils écrivent,	let them write.

PARTICIPLES.

écrivait,	writing.
écrit,	written.

217 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Fuir, || To Flee.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je fuis,	I flee.	nous fuyons,	we flee.
tu fuis,	thou fleest.	vous fuyez,	you flee.
il fuit,	he flees.	ils fuient,	they flee.

Past Imperfect Time.

Je fuyais,	I fled.	nous fuyions,	we fled.
tu fuyais,	thou fledst.	vous fuyiez,	you fled.
il fuyait,	he fled.	ils fuyaient,	they fled.

Past Perfect Time.

Je fus,	I fled.	nous fûmes,	we fled.
tu fus,	thou fledst.	vous fûtes,	you fled.
il fut,	he fled.	ils fuirent,	they fled.

Future Time.

Je fuirai,	I shall flee.	nous fuirons,	we shall flee.
tu fuirais,	thou shalt flee.	vous fuirez,	you shall flee.
il fuira,	he shall flee.	ils fuiront,	they shall flee.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je fuie,	I may flee.	nous fuyions,	we may flee.
tu fuies,	thou mayest flee.	vous fuyiez,	you may flee.
il fuie,	he may flee.	ils fuient,	they may flee.

Past Imperfect Time.

Je fuirais,	I should flee.	nous fuirions,	we should flee.
tu fuirais,	thou shouldst flee.	vous fuiriez,	you should flee.
il fuirait,	he should flee.	ils fuiraient,	they should flee.

Past Perfect Time.

Je fusse,	I might flee.	nous fuissions,	we might flee.
tu fusses,	thou mightest flee.	vous fussiez,	you might flee.
il fût,	he might flee.	ils fussent,	they might flee.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

—	—	fuyons,	let us flee.
fuis,	flee.	fuyez,	flee.
qu'il fuie,	let him flee.	qu'ils fuient,	let them flee.

PARTICIPLES.

fuyant,	fleeing.
fui,	fled.

218 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Hair, | To Hate.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je hais,	I hate.	nous haïssons,	we hate.
tu hais,	thou hatest.	vous haïssez,	you hate.
il hait,	he hates.	ils haïssent,	they hate.

Past Imperfect Time.

je haïssais,	I hated.	nous haïssions,	we hated.
tu haïssais,	thou hatedst.	vous haïssez,	you hated.
il haïssait,	he hated.	ils haïssaient,	they hated.

Past Perfect Time.

[Not used in this Time.]

Future Time.

je haïrai,	I shall hate.	nous haïrons,	we shall hate.
tu haïras,	thou shalt hate.	vous haïrez,	you shall hate.
il haïra,	he shall hate.	ils haïront,	they shall hate.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je haïsse,	I may hate.	nous haïssions,	we may hate.
tu haïsses,	thou mayest hate.	vous haïssez,	you may hate.
il haïsse,	he may hate.	ils haïssent,	they may hate.

Past Imperfect Time.

je haïrais,	I should hate.	nous haïrions,	we should hate.
tu haïrais,	thou shouldest hate.	vous haïriez,	you should hate.
il haïrait,	he should hate.	ils haïraient,	they should hate.

Past Perfect Time.

[Not used in this Time.]

IMPERATIVE MODE.

hais,	hate.	haïssons,	let us hate.
qu'ils haïsse,	let him hate.	haïssez,	hate.
		qu'ils haïssent,	let them hate.

PARTICIPLES.

haïssant,	hating.
haï,	hated.

219 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Lire, || To Read.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je lis,	I read.	nous lisons,	we read.
tu lis,	thou readest.	vous lisez,	you read.
il lit,	he reads,	ils lisent,	they read.

Past Imperfect Time.

je lisais,	I read.	nous lisions,	we read.
tu lisais,	thou readest.	vous lisiez,	you read.
il lisait,	he read.	ils lisaient,	they read.

Past Perfect Time.

je lus,	I read.	nous lûmes,	we read.
tu lus,	thou readest.	vous lûtes,	you read.
il lut,	he read.	ils lurent,	they read.

Future Time.

je lirai,	I shall read.	nous lirons,	we shall read.
tu lirais,	thou shalt read.	vous lirez,	you shall read.
il lira,	he shall read.	ils liront,	they shall read.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je lise,	I may read.	nous lisions,	we may read.
tu lises,	thou mayest read.	vous lisiez,	you may read.
il lise,	he may read.	ils lisent,	they may read.

Past Imperfect Time.

je lirais,	I should read.	nous lirions,	we should read.
tu lirais,	thou shouldest read.	vous liriez,	you should read.
il lirait,	he should read.	ils liraient	they should read.

Past Perfect Time.

je lusse,	I might read.	nous lus-sions,	we might read.
tu lusses,	thou mightest read.	vous lus-siez,	you might read.
il lût,	he might read.	ils lussent,	they might read.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

lis,	read.	lisons,	let us read.
qu'il lise,	let him read.	lisez,	read.
		qu'ils lisent,	let them read.

PARTICIPLES.

lisant, || reading.
lu, || read.

220 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Mettre, | To Put.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je mets,	I put.	nous mettons,	we put.
tu mets,	thou puttest.	vous mettez,	you put.
il met,	he puts.	ils mettent,	they put.

Past Imperfect Time.

je mettais,	I put.	nous mettions,	we put.
tu mettais,	thou puttest.	vous mettiez,	you put.
il mettait,	he put.	ils mettaient,	they put.

Past Perfect Time.

je mis,	I put.	nous mîmes,	we put.
tu mis,	thou puttest.	vous mîmes,	you put.
il mit,	he put.	ils mîrent,	they put.

Future Time.

je mettrai,	I shall put.	nous mettrons,	we shall put.
tu mettras,	thou shalt put.	vous mettrez,	you shall put.
il mettra,	he shall put.	ils mettront,	they shall put.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je mette,	I may put.	nous mettions,	we may put.
tu mettes,	thou mayest put.	vous mettiez,	you may put.
il mette,	he may put.	ils mettent,	they may put.

Past Imperfect Time.

je mettrais,	I should put.	nous mettrions,	we should put.
tu mettrais,	thou shouldest put.	vous mettriez,	you should put.
il mettrait,	he should put.	ils mettraient,	they should put.

Past Perfect Time.

je misse,	I might put.	nous missions,	we might put.
tu misses,	thou mightest put.	vous missiez,	you might put.
il mit,	he might put.	ils missent,	they might put.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

—	—	mettons,	let us put.
metts,	put.	mettez,	put.
qu'il mette,	let him put.	qu'ils mettent,	let them put.

PARTICIPLES.

mettant,	putting.
mis,	put.

221 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Moudre, | To Grind.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je mouds,	I grind.	nous moulons,	we grind.
tu mouds,	thou grindest.	vous moulez,	you grind.
il moud,	he grinds.	ils moulent,	they grind.

Past Imperfect Time.

je moulais,	I ground.	nous moulions,	we ground.
tu moulais,	thou groundest.	vous mouliez,	you ground.
il moulait,	he ground.	ils moulaient,	they ground.

Past Perfect Time.

je moulus,	I ground.	nous moulîmes,	we ground.
tu moulus,	thou groundest.	vous moulîtes,	you ground.
il moulut,	he ground.	ils moulurent,	they ground.

Future Time.

je moudrai,	I shall grind.	nous moudrons,	we shall grind.
tu moudras,	thou shalt grind.	vous moudrez,	you shall grind.
il moudra,	he shall grind.	ils moudront,	they shall grind.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je moule,	I may grind.	nous moulions,	we may grind.
tu mou-es,	thou mayest grind.	vous mouliez,	you may grind.
il moule,	he may grind.	ils moulent,	they may grind.

Past Imperfect Time.

je moudrais,	I should grind.	nous moudrions,	we should grind.
tu moudrais,	thou shouldest grind.	vous moudriez,	you should grind.
il moudrait,	he should grind.	ils moudraient,	they should grind.

Past Perfect Time.

je moulusse,	I might grind.	nous moulussions,	we might grind.
tu moulusses,	thou mightest grind.	vous moulussiez,	you might grind.
il moulût,	he might grind.	ils moulussent,	they might grind.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

mouds,	grind.	moulons,	let us grind.
qu'il moule,	let him grind.	moulez,	grind.
		qu'ils moulent,	let them grind.

PARTICIPLES.

moulant,	grinding.
moulu,	ground.

222 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Mourir, || To Die.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je meurs,	I die.	nous mourons,	we die.
tu meurs,	thou diest.	vous mourez,	you die.
il meurt,	he dies.	ils meurent,	they die.

Past Imperfect Time.

je mourais,	I died.	nous mourions,	we died.
tu mourais,	thou diedst.	vous mouriez,	you died.
il mourait,	he died.	ils mouraient,	they died.

Past Perfect Time.

je mourus,	I died.	nous mourûmes,	we died.
tu mourus,	thou diedst.	vous mourûtes,	you died.
il mourut,	he died.	ils moururent,	they died.

Future Time.

je mourrai,	I shall die.	nous mourrons,	we shall die.
tu mourras,	thou shalt die.	vous mourrez,	you shall die.
il mourra,	he shall die.	ils mourront,	they shall die.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je meure,	I may die.	nous mourions,	we may die.
tu meures,	thou mayest die.	vous mouriez,	you may die.
il meure,	he may die.	ils meurent,	they may die.

Past Imperfect Time.

je mourrais,	I should die.	nous mourrions,	we should die.
tu mourrais,	thou shouldst die.	vous mourriez,	you should die.
il mourrait,	he should die.	ils mourraient,	they should die.

Past Perfect Time.

je mourusse,	I might die.	nous mourussions,	we might die.
tu mourusses,	thou mightest die.	vous mourussiez,	you might die.
il mourût,	he might die.	ils mourussent,	they might die.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

meurs,	die.	mourons,	let us die.
qu'il meure,	let him die.	mourez,	die.
		qu'ils meurent,	let them die.

PARTICIPLES.

mourant,	dying.
mort,	died.

223 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Mouvoir. | To Move.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je meus,	I move.	nous mouvons,	we move.
tu meus,	thou movest.	vous mouvez,	you move.
il meut,	he moves.	ils meuvent,	they move.

Past Imperfect Time.

je mouvais,	I moved.	nous mouvions,	we moved.
tu mouvais,	thou movedst.	vous mouviez,	you moved.
il mouvait,	he moved.	ils mouvaiient,	they moved.

Past Perfect Time.

je mus,	I moved.	nous mîmes,	we moved.
tu mus,	thou movedst.	vous mîtes,	you moved.
il mût,	he moved.	ils murent,	they moved.

Future Time.

je mouvrai,	I shall move.	nous mouvrons,	we shall move.
tu mouvras,	thou shalt move.	vous mouvez,	you shall move.
il mouvra,	he shall move.	ils mouvront,	they shall move.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je meuve,	I may move.	nous mouvions,	we may move.
tu meuves,	thou mayest move.	vous mouviez,	you may move.
il meuve,	he may move.	ils meuvent,	they may move.

Past Imperfect Time.

je mouvrais,	I should move.	nous mouvriions,	we should move.
tu mouvrais,	thou shoulddest move.	vous mouvriez,	you should move.
il mouvrait,	he should move.	ils mouvraient,	they should move.

Past Perfect Time.

je musse,	I might move.	nous mussions,	we might move.
tu musses,	thou mightest move.	vous musseriez,	you might move.
il mût,	he might move.	ils müssent,	they might move.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

meus,	move.	mouvons,	let us move.
qu'il meuve,	let him move.	mouvez,	move.
		qu'ils meuvent,	let them move.

PARTICIPLES.

mouvant,	moving.
mû,	moved.

224 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Naître, ¶ To be Born.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je nais,	I am born.	nous naissons,	we are born.
tu nais,	thou art born.	vous naissez,	you are born.
il naît,	he is born.	ils naissent,	they are born.

Past Imperfect Time.

je naissais,	I was born.	nous naissions,	we were born.
tu naissais,	thou wast born.	vous naissiez,	you were born.
il naissait,	he was born.	ils naissaient,	they were born.

Past Perfect Time.

je naquis,	I was born.	nous naquîmes,	we were born.
tu naquis,	thou wert born.	vous naquîtes,	you were born.
il naquit,	he was born.	ils naquîrent,	they were born.

Future Time.

je naîtrai,	I shall be born.	nous naîtrons,	we shall be born.
tu naîtras,	thou shalt be born.	vous naîtrez,	you shall be born.
il naîtra,	he shall be born.	ils naîtront,	they shall be born.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je naisse,	I may be born.	nous naissions,	we may be born.
tu naisses,	thou mayest be born.	vous naissiez,	you may be born.
il naisse,	he may be born.	ils naissent,	they may be born.

Past Imperfect Time.

je naîtrais,	I should be born.	nous naîtrions,	we should be born.
tu naîtrais,	thou shouldest be born.	vous naîtriez,	you should be born.
il naîtrait,	he should be born.	ils naîtraient,	they should be born.

Past Perfect Time.

je naquisse,	I might be born.	nous naquissions,	we might be born.
tu naquisses,	thou mightest be born.	vous naquissiez,	you might be born.
il naquît,	he might be born.	ils naquissent,	they might be born.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

nais,	be born.	naissions,	let us be born.
qu'il naisse,	let him be born.	naissiez,	be born.
		qu'ils naissent,	let them be born.

PARTICIPLES.

naissant,	being born.
né,	been born.

225 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Ouvrir, || To Open.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

j'ouvre.	I open.	nous ouvrons,	we open.
tu ouvres,	thou openest.	vous ouvrez,	you open.
il ouvre,	he opens.	ils ouvrent,	they open.

Past Imperfect Time.

j'ouvrais,	I opened.	nous ouvrions,	we opened.
tu ouvrais,	thou openedst.	vous ouvriez,	you opened.
il ouvrait,	he opened.	ils ouvraient,	they opened.

Past Perfect Time.

j'ouvris,	I opened.	nous ouvrimus,	we opened.
tu ouvris,	thou openedst.	vous ouvrites,	you opened.
il ouvrit,	he opened.	ils ouvrirent,	they opened.

Future Time.

j'ouvrirai,	I shall open.	nous ouvrirons,	we shall open.
tu ouvriras,	thou shalt open.	vous ouvrirez,	you shall open.
il ouvrira,	he shall open.	ils ouvriront,	they shall open.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

j'ouvre,	I may open.	nous ouvrions,	we may open.
tu ouvres,	thou mayest open.	vous ouvriez,	you may open.
il ouvre,	he may open.	ils ouvrent,	they may open.

Past Imperfect Time.

j'ouvrirais,	I should open.	nous ouvririons,	we should open.
tu ouvrirais,	thou shoulddest open.	vous ouvririez,	you should open.
il ouvrirait,	he should open.	ils ouvriraient,	they should open.

Past Perfect Time.

j'ouvrisse,	I might open.	nous ouvririons,	we might open.
tu ouvrisse,	thou mightest open.	vous ouvririez,	you might open.
il ouvrirait,	he might open.	ils ouvrissent,	they might open.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

ouvre,	open.	ouvrons,	let us open.
qu'il ouvre,	let him open.	ouvrez,	open.
		qu'ils ouvrent,	let them open.

PARTICIPLES.

ouvrant,	opening.
ouvert,	opened.

226 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Plaire, | To Please.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je plais,	I please.	nous plaisons,	we please.
tu plais,	thou pleasest.	vous plaisez,	you please.
il plaît,	he pleases.	ils plaisent,	they please.

Past Imperfect Time.

Je plaisais,	I pleased.	nous plaisions,	we pleased.
tu plaisais,	thou pleasedst.	vous plaisiez,	you pleased.
il plaisait,	he pleased.	ils plaisaient,	they pleased.

Past Perfect Time.

Je plus,	I pleased.	nous plûmes,	we pleased.
tu plus,	thou pleasedst.	vous plûtes,	you pleased.
il plut,	he pleased.	ils plurent,	they pleased.

Future Time.

Je plairai,	I shall please.	nous plairons,	we shall please.
tu plairas,	thou shalt please.	vous plairez,	you shall please.
il plaira,	he shall please.	ils plairont,	they shall please.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je plaise,	I may please.	nous plaisions,	we may please.
tu plaises,	thou mayest please.	vous plussiez,	you may please.
il plaise,	he may please.	ils plaisent,	they may please.

Past Imperfect Time.

Je plairais,	I should please.	nous plairions,	we should please.
tu plairais,	thou shouldst please.	vous plairiez,	you should please.
il plairait,	he should please.	ils plairaient,	they should please.

Past Perfect Time.

Je plusse,	I might please.	nous plussions,	we might please.
tu plusses,	thou mightest please.	vous plussiez,	you might please.
il plût,	he might please.	ils plussent,	they might please.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

plais,	please.	plaisons,	let us please.
qu'il plaise,	let him please.	plaisez,	please.
		qu'ils plaisent,	let them please.

PARTICIPLES.

plaisant,	pleasing.
plu,	pleased.

227 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Pouvoir, | To be Able, or To have Power.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je puis, or peux,	I am able.	nous pouvons,	we are able.
tu peux,	thou art able.	vous pouvez,	you are able.
il peut,	he is able.	ils peuvent,	they are able.

Past Imperfect Time.

je pouvais,	I was able.	nous pouvions,	we were able.
tu pouvais,	thou wast able.	vous pouviez,	you were able.
il pouvait,	he was able.	ils pouvaient,	they were able.

Past Perfect Time.

je pus,	I was able.	nous pûmes,	we were able.
tu pus,	thou wast able.	vous pûtes,	you were able.
il put,	he was able.	ils purent,	they were able.

Future Time.

je pourrai,	I shall be able.	nous pourrons,	we shall be able.
tu pourras,	thou shalt be able.	vous pourrez,	you shall be able.
il pourra,	he shall be able.	ils pourront,	they shall be able.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je puisse,	I may be able.	nous puissions,	we may be able.
tu puisses,	thou mayest be able.	vous puissiez,	you may be able.
il puisse,	he may be able.	ils puissent,	they may be able.

Past Imperfect Time.

je pourrais,	I should be able.	nous pourrions,	we should be able.
tu pourrais,	thou shoulddest be able.	vous pourriez,	you should be able.
il pourrait,	he should be able.	ils pourraient,	they should be able.

Past Perfect Time.

je pusse,	I might be able.	nous pussions,	we might be able.
tu pusses,	thou mightest be able.	vous pussiez,	you might be able.
il pût,	he might be able.	ils pussent,	they might be able.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

[Not used in this Mode.]

PARTICIPLES.

pouvant,	being able.
pu,	been able.

228 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Prendre, || To Take.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je prends,	I take.	nous prenons,	we take.
tu prends,	thou takest.	vous prenez,	you take.
il prend,	he takes.	ils prennent,	they take.

Past Imperfect Time.

je prenais,	I took.	nous prenions,	we took.
tu prenais,	thou tookest.	vous preniez,	you took.
il prenait,	he took.	ils prenaient,	they took.

Past Perfect Time.

je pris,	I took.	nous primes,	we took.
tu pris,	thou tookest.	vous prites,	you took.
il prit,	he took.	ils prirent,	they took.

Future Time.

je prendrai,	I shall take.	nous prendrons,	we shall take.
tu prendras,	thou shalt take.	vous prendrez,	you shall take.
il prendra,	he shall take.	ils prendront,	they shall take.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je prenne,	I may take.	nous prenions,	we may take.
tu prennes,	thou mayest take.	vous preniez,	you may take.
il prenne,	he may take.	ils prennent,	they may take.

Past Imperfect Time.

je prendrais,	I should take.	nous prendrions,	we should take.
tu prendrais,	thou shoulddest take.	vous prendriez,	you should take.
il prendrait,	he should take.	ils prendraient,	they should take.

Past Perfect Time.

je prisse,	I might take.	nous prissions,	we might take.
tu prisses,	thou mightest take.	vous prissiez,	you might take.
il prît,	he might take.	ils prissent,	they might take.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

prends,	take.	prenons,	let us take.
qu'il prenne,	let him take.	prenez,	take.
		qu'ils prennent,	let them take.

PARTICIPLES.

prenant,	taking.
pris.	taken.

229 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Résoudre, || To Resolve.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je résous,	I resolve.	nous résolvons,	we resolve.
tu résous,	thou resolvest.	vous résolvez,	you resolve.
il résout,	he resolves.	ils résolvent,	they resolve.

Past Imperfect Time.

je résolvais,	I resolved.	nous résolvions,	we resolved.
tu résolvais,	thou resolvedst.	vous résolviez,	you resolved.
il résolvait,	he resolved.	ils résolvaient,	they resolved.

Past Perfect Time.

je résolus,	I resolved.	nous résolûmes,	we resolved.
tu résolus,	thou resolvedst.	vous résolûtes,	you resolved.
il résolut,	he resolved.	ils résolurent,	they resolved.

Future Time.

je résoudrai,	I shall resolve.	nous résoudrons,	we shall resolve.
tu résoudras,	thou shalt resolve.	vous résoudrez,	you shall resolve.
il résoudra,	he shall resolve.	ils résoudront,	they shall resolve.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je résolve,	I may resolve.	nous résolvions,	we may resolve.
tu résolves,	thou mayest resolve.	vous résolviez,	you may resolve.
il résolve,	he may resolve.	ils résolvent,	they may resolve.

Past Imperfect Time.

je résoudrais,	I should resolve.	nous résoudrions,	we should resolve.
tu résoudrais,	thou shouldst resolve.	vous résoudriez,	you should resolve.
il résoudrait,	he should resolve.	ils résoudraient,	they should resolve.

Past Perfect Time.

je résolusse,	I might resolve.	nous résolussions,	we might resolve.
tu résolusses,	thou mightest resolve.	vous résolussiez,	you might resolve.
il résolût,	he might resolve.	ils résolussent,	they might resolve.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

résous,	resolve.	résolvons,	let us resolve.
qu'il résolve,	let him resolve.	résolvez,	resolve.
		qu'ils résolvent,	let them resolve.

PARTICIPLES.

résolvant,	resolving.
résolu,	resolved.

230 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Revêtir, | To Invest.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je revêts,	I invest.	nous revêtons,	we invest.
tu revêts,	thou investest.	vous revêtez,	you invest.
il revêt,	he invests.	ils revêtent,	they invest.

Past Imperfect Time.

je revêtais,	I invested.	nous revêtions,	we invested.
tu revêtais,	thou investedst.	vous revétiez,	you invested.
il revêtait,	he invested.	ils revêtaient,	they invested.

Past Perfect Time.

je revêtis,	I invested.	nous revêtîmes,	we invested.
tu revêtis,	thou investedst.	vous revêtîtes,	you invested.
il revêtit,	he invested.	ils revêtirent,	they invested.

Future Time.

je revêtirai,	I shall invest.	nous revêtirons,	we shall invest.
tu revêtiras,	thou shalt invest.	vous revêtirez,	you shall invest.
il revêtira,	he shall invest.	ils revêtiront,	they shall invest.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je revête,	I may invest.	vous revêtions,	we may invest.
tu revêtes,	thou mayest invest.	vous revétiez,	you may invest.
il revête,	he may invest.	ils revêtent,	they may invest.

Past Imperfect Time.

je revêtirais,	I should invest.	nous revêtirions,	we should invest.
tu revêtirais,	thou shouldest invest.	vous revêtiriez,	you should invest.
il revêtirait,	he should invest.	ils revêtiraient,	they should invest.

Past Perfect Time.

je revêtisse,	I might invest.	nous revêtissions,	we might invest.
tu revétisses,	thou mightest invest.	vous revétissiez,	you might invest.
il revêtît,	he might invest.	ils revétissent,	they might invest.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

revêts,	invest.	revêtons,	let us invest.
qu'il revête,	let him invest.	revêtez,	invest.
		qu'ils revêtent,	let them invest.

PARTICIPLES.

revêtant,	investing.
revêtu,	invested.

231 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Rire, | To Laugh.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je ris,	I laugh.	nous rions,	we laugh.
tu ris,	thou laughest	vous riez,	you laugh.
il rit,	he laughs.	ils rient,	they laugh.

Past Imperfect Time.

Je riais,	I laughed.	nous rions,	we laughed.
tu riais,	thou laughedst.	vous riez,	you laughed.
il riait,	he laughed.	ils riaient,	they laughed.

Past Perfect Time.

Je ris,	I laughed.	nous rimes,	we laughed.
tu ris,	thou laughedst.	vous rîtes,	you laughed.
il rit,	he laughed.	ils rirent,	they laughed.

Future Time.

Je rirai,	I shall laugh.	nous rirons,	we shall laugh.
tu riras,	thou shalt laugh.	vous rirez,	you shall laugh.
il rira,	he shall laugh.	ils riront,	they shall laugh.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je rie,	I may laugh.	nous rions,	we may laugh.
tu ries,	thou mayest laugh.	vous riez,	you may laugh.
il rie,	he may laugh.	ils rient,	they may laugh.

Past Imperfect Time.

Je rirais,	I should laugh.	nous ririons,	we should laugh.
tu rirais,	thou shouldst laugh.	vous ririez,	you should laugh.
il rirait,	he should laugh.	ils riraient,	they should laugh.

Past Perfect Time.

Je risse,	I might laugh.	nous rissons,	we might laugh.
tu risses,	thou mightest laugh.	vous risseriez,	you might laugh.
il rit,	he might laugh.	ils risserent,	they might laugh.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

ris,	laugh.	rions,	let us laugh.
qu'il rie,	let him laugh.	riez,	laugh.
		qu'ils rient	let them laugh.

PARTICIPLES.

riant,	laughing.
ri,	laughed.

232 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Rompre, | To Break.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je romps,	I break.	nous rompons,	we break.
tu romps,	thou breakest.	vous rompez,	you break.
il rompt,	he breaks.	ils rompent,	they break.

Past Imperfect Time.

je rompais,	I broke.	nous romptions,	we broke.
tu rompais,	thou brokest.	vous rompiez,	you broke.
il rompait,	he broke.	ils rompaient,	they broke.

Past Perfect Time.

je rompis,	I broke.	nous rompîmes,	we broke.
tu rompis,	thou brokest.	vous rompîtes,	you broke.
il rompit,	he broke.	ils rompirent,	they broke.

Future Time.

je romprai,	I shall break.	nous romprons,	we shall break.
tu rompras,	thou shalt break.	vous romprez,	you shall break.
il rompra,	he shall break.	ils rompront,	they shall break.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je rompe,	I may break.	nous rompons,	we may break.
tu rompes,	thou mayest break.	vous rompiez,	you may break.
il rompe,	he may break.	ils rompent,	they may break.

Past Imperfect Time.

je romprais,	I should break.	nous romprions,	we should break.
tu romprais,	thou shouldst break.	vous rompiez,	you should break.
il romprait,	he should break.	ils rompraient,	they should break.

Past Perfect Time.

je rompisse,	I might break.	nous rompiussions,	we might break.
tu rompisses,	thou mightest break.	vous rompiez,	you might break.
il rompît,	he might break.	ils rompiussent,	they might break.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

romps,	break.	rompons,	let us break.
qu'il rompe,	let him break.	rompez,	break.
		qu'ils rompent,	let them break.

PARTICIPLES.

rompant,	breaking.
rompu,	broken.

233 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Savoir, | To Know.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je sais,	I know.	nous savons,	we know.
tu sais,	thou knowest.	vous savez,	you know.
il sait,	he knows.	ils savent,	they know.

Past Imperfect Time.

je savais,	I knew.	nous savions,	we knew.
tu savais,	thou knewest.	vous saviez,	you knew.
il savait,	he knew.	ils savaient,	they knew.

Past Perfect Time.

je sus,	I knew.	nous sûmes,	we knew.
tu sus,	thou knewest.	vous sûtes,	you knew.
il eut,	he knew.	ils surent,	they knew.

Future Time.

je saurai,	I shall know.	nous saurons,	we shall know.
tu sauras,	thou shalt know.	vous saurez,	you shall know.
il saura,	he shall know.	ils sauront,	they shall know.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je sache,	I may know.	nous sachions,	we may know.
tu saches,	thou mayest know.	vous sachiez,	you may know.
il sache,	he may know.	ils sachent,	they may know.

Past Imperfect Time.

je saurais,	I should know.	nous saurions,	we should know.
tu saurais,	thou shouldst know.	vous sauriez,	you should know.
il saurait,	he should know.	ils sauraient,	they should know.

Past Perfect Time.

je susse,	I might know.	nous sussions,	we might know.
tu susses,	thou mightest know.	vous sussiez,	you might know.
il sût,	he might know.	ils sussent,	they might know.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

sais,	know.	sachons,	let us know.
qu'il sache,	let him know.	sachez,	know.
		qu'ils sachent,	let them know.

PARTICIPLES.

sachant,	knowing.
su,	known.

234 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Suivre, ¶ To Follow.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je suis,	I follow.	nous suivons,	we follow.
tu suis,	thou followest.	vous suivez,	you follow.
il suit,	he follows.	ils suivent,	they follow.

Past Imperfect Time.

Je suivais,	I followed.	nous suivions,	we followed.
tu suivais,	thou followedst.	vous suiviez,	you followed.
il suivait,	he followed.	ils suivaient,	they followed.

Past Perfect Time.

Je suivis,	I followed.	nous suivîmes,	we followed.
tu suivis,	thou followedst.	vous suivîtes,	you followed.
il suivit,	he followed.	ils suivirent,	they followed.

Future Time.

Je suivrai,	I shall follow.	nous suivrons,	we shall follow.
tu suivras,	thou shalt follow.	vous suivrez,	you shall follow.
il suivra,	he shall follow.	ils suivront,	they shall follow.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je suive,	I may follow.	nous suivions,	we may follow.
tu suivies,	thou mayest follow.	vous suiviez,	you may follow.
il suive,	he may follow.	ils suivent,	they may follow.

Past Imperfect Time.

Je suivrais,	I should follow.	nous suivrions,	we should follow.
tu suivrais,	thou shouldest follow.	vous suivriez,	you should follow.
il suivrait,	he should follow.	ils suivraient,	they should follow.

Past Perfect Time.

Je suivisse,	I might follow.	nous suivissions,	we might follow.
tu suivisses,	thou mightest follow.	vous suivissiez,	you might follow.
il suivît,	he might follow.	ils suivissent,	they might follow.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

—	—	suivons,	let us follow.
suiv,	follow.	suivez,	follow.
qu'il suive,	let him follow.	qu'ils suivent,	let them follow.

PARTICIPLES.

suis,	following.
suiant,	followed.
sui,	

235 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Traire, | To Milk.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je traie,	I milk.	nous trayons,	we milk.
tu traies,	thou milkest.	vous trayez,	you milk.
il traite,	he milks.	ils traient,	they milk.

Past Imperfect Time.

je trayais,	I milked.	nous trayions,	we milked.
tu trayais,	thou milkedst.	vous trayiez,	you milked.
il trayait,	he milked.	ils trayaient,	they milked.

Past Perfect Time.

[Not used in this time.]

Future Time.

je trairai,	I shall milk.	nous trairons,	we shall milk.
tu trairas,	thou shalt milk.	vous trairez,	you shall milk.
il traira,	he shall milk.	ils trairont,	they shall milk.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je traie,	I may milk.	nous trayions,	we may milk.
tu traies,	thou mayest milk.	vous trayiez,	you may milk.
il traie,	he may milk.	ils traient,	they may milk.

Past Imperfect Time.

je trairais,	I should milk.	nous trairions,	we should milk.
tu trairais,	thou shouldest milk.	vous trairiez,	you should milk.
il trairait,	he should milk.	ils trairaient,	they should milk.

Past Perfect Time.

[Not used in this Time.]

IMPERATIVE MODE.

traie,	milk.	trayons,	let us milk.
qu'il traie,	let him milk.	trayez,	milk.
		qu'ils traient,	let them milk.

PARTICIPLES.

trayant,	milking.
traie,	milked.

Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Tressaillir, | To Burst out.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

tressaille,	I burst out.	nous tressaillons,	we burst out.
tressailles,	thou burstest out.	vous tressaillez,	you burst out.
tressaille,	he bursts out.	ils tressaillent,	they burst out.

Past Imperfect Time.

tressaillais,	I bursted out.	nous tressaillions,	we bursted out.
tressaillais,	thou burstedst out.	vous tressailliez,	you bursted out.
tressaillait,	he bursted out.	ils tressaillaient,	they bursted out.

Past Perfect Time.

tressaillis,	I bursted out.	nous tressaillîmes,	we bursted out.
tressaillis,	thou burstedst out.	vous tressaillîtes,	you bursted out.
tressaillit,	he bursted out.	ils tressaillirent,	they bursted out.

Future Time.

tressaillirai,	I shall burst out.	nous tressaillirons,	we shall burst out.
tressailliras,	thou shalt burst out.	vous tressaillirez,	you shall burst out.
tressaillira,	he shall burst out.	ils tressailliront,	they shall burst out.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

tressaille,	I may burst out.	nous tressaillions,	we may burst out.
tressailles,	thou mayest burst out.	vous tressailliez,	you may burst out.
tressaille,	he may burst out.	ils tressaillent,	they may burst out.

Past Imperfect Time.

tressaillirais,	I should burst out.	nous tressaillirions,	we should burst out.
tressaillirais,	thou shoulddest burst out.	vous tressailliriez,	you should burst out.
tressaillirait,	he should burst out.	ils tressailliraient,	they should burst out.

Past Perfect Time.

tressaillisse,	I might burst out.	nous tressaillissions,	we might burst out.
tressaillisses,	thou mightest burst out.	vous tressaillissiez,	you might burst out.
tressaillit,	he might burst out.	ils tressaillissent,	they might burst out.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

tressaille,	burst out.	tressaillons,	let us burst out.
tressaille,	let him burst out.	tressaillez,	burst out.
tressaille,		qu'ils tressaillent,	let them burst out.

PARTICIPLES.

tressaillant,	bursting out.
tressailli,	bursted out.

237 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Valoir, ¶ To be Worth.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je vaux,	I am worth.	nous valons,	we are worth.
tu vaux,	thou art worth.	vous valez,	you are worth.
il vaut.	he is worth.	ils valent,	they are worth.

Past Imperfect Time.

je valais,	I was worth.	nous valions,	we were worth.
tu valais,	thou wast worth.	vous valiez,	you were worth.
il valait,	he was worth.	ils valaient	they were worth.

Past Perfect Time.

je valus,	I was worth.	nous valûmes,	we were worth.
tu valus,	thou wast worth.	vous valûtes,	you were worth.
il valut,	he was worth.	ils valurent,	they were worth.

Future Time.

je vaudrai,	I shall be worth.	nous vaudrons,	we shall be worth.
tu vaudras,	thou shalt be worth.	vous vaudrez,	you shall be worth.
il vaudra,	he shall be worth.	ils vaudront,	they shall be worth.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je vaille,	I may be worth.	nous valions,	we may be worth.
tu vailles,	thou mayest be worth.	vous valiez,	you may be worth.
il vaille,	he may be worth.	ils valient,	they may be worth.

Past Imperfect Time.

je vaudrais,	I should be worth.	nous vaudrions,	we should be worth.
tu vaudrais,	thou shouldest be worth.	vous vaudriez,	you should be worth.
il vaudrait,	he should be worth.	ils vaudraient,	they should be worth.

Past Perfect Time.

je valusse,	I might be worth.	nous valussions,	we might be worth.
tu valusses,	thou mightest be worth.	vous valussiez,	you might be worth.
il valût,	he might be worth.	ils valussent,	they might be worth.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

—	—	valons,	let us be worth.
vaux,	be worth.	valez,	be worth.
qu'il vaille,	let him be worth.	qu'ils valient,	let them be worth.

PARTICIPLES.

valant,	being worth.
valu,	been worth.

238 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Vivre, || To Live.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je vis,	I live.	nous vivons,	we live.
tu vis,	thou livest.	vous vivez,	you live.
il vit,	he lives.	ils vivent,	they live.

Past Imperfect Time.

je vivais,	I lived.	nous vivions,	we lived.
tu vivais,	thou livedst.	vous viviez,	you lived.
il vivait,	he lived.	ils vivaient,	they lived.

Past Perfect Time.

je vécus,	I lived.	nous vécûmes,	we lived.
tu vécus,	thou livedst.	vous vécûtes,	you lived.
il vécût,	he lived.	ils vécurent,	they lived.

Future Time.

je vivrai,	I shall live.	nous vivrons,	we shall live.
tu vivras,	thou shalt live.	vous vivrez,	you shall live.
il vivra,	he shall live.	ils vivront,	they shall live.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je vive,	I may live.	nous vivions,	we may live.
tu vives,	thou mayest live.	vous viviez,	you may live.
il vive,	he may live.	ils vivent,	they may live.

Past Imperfect Time.

je vivrais,	I should live.	nous vivrions,	we should live.
tu vivrais,	thou shouldst live.	vous vivriez,	you should live.
il vivrait,	he should live.	ils vivraient,	they should live.

Past Perfect Time.

je vécusse,	I might live.	nous vécussions,	we might live.
tu vécusse,	thou mightest live.	vous vécussiez,	you might live.
il vécût,	he might live.	ils vécussent,	they might live.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

vis.	live.	vivons,	let us live.
qu'il vive,	let him live.	vivez,	live.
		qu'ils vivent,	let them live.

PARTICIPLES.

vivant,	living.
vécû,	lived.

239 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Voir, | To See.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je vois,	I see.	nous voyons,	we see.
tu vois,	thou seest.	vous voyez,	you see.
il voit,	he sees.	ils voient,	they see.

Past Imperfect Time.

je voyais,	I saw.	nous voyions,	we saw.
tu voyais,	thou sawest.	vous voyiez,	you saw.
il voyait,	he saw.	ils voyaient,	they saw.

Past Perfect Time.

je vis,	I saw.	nous vîmes,	we saw.
tu vis,	thou sawest.	vous vîtes,	you saw.
il vit,	he saw.	ils virent,	they saw.

Future Time.

je verrai,	I shall see.	nous verrons,	we shall see.
tu verras,	thou shalt see.	vous verrez,	you shall see.
il verra,	he shall see.	ils verront,	they shall see.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

je voie,	I may see.	nous voyions,	we may see.
tu voies,	thou mayest see.	vous voyiez,	you may see.
il voie,	he may see.	ils voient,	they may see.

Past Imperfect Time.

je verrais,	I should see.	nous verrions,	we should see.
tu verrais,	thou shouldest see.	vous verriez,	you should see.
il verrait,	he should see.	ils verraient,	they should see.

Past Perfect Time.

je visse,	I might see.	nous vissions,	we might see.
tu viasses,	thou mightest see.	vous vissiez,	you might see.
il vît,	he might see.	ils vissent,	they might see.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

vois,	see.	voyons,	let us see.
qu'il voie,	let him see.	voyez,	see.
		qu'ils voient,	let them see.

PARTICIPLES.

voyant, || seeing.

240 Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Vouloir, || To be Willing.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je veux,	I am willing.	nous voulons,	we are willing.
tu veux,	thou art willing.	vous voulez,	you are willing.
il veut,	he is willing.	ils veulent,	they are willing.

Past Imperfect Time.

Je voulais,	I was willing.	nous voulions,	we were willing.
tu voulais,	thou wast willing.	vous vouliez,	you were willing.
il voulait,	he was willing.	ils voulaient,	they were willing.

Past Perfect Time.

Je voulais,	I was willing.	nous voulûmes,	we were willing.
tu voulais,	thou wast willing.	vous voulûtes,	you were willing.
il voulut,	he was willing.	ils voulurent,	they were willing.

Future Time.

Je voudrai,	I shall be willing.	nous voudrons,	we shall be willing.
tu voudras,	thou shalt be willing.	vous voudrez,	you shall be willing.
il voudra,	he shall be willing.	ils voudront,	they shall be willing.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

Je veuille,	I may be willing.	nous voulions,	we may be willing.
tu veuilles,	thou mayest be willing.	vous vouliez,	you may be willing.
il veuille,	he may be willing.	ils veuillent,	they may be willing.

Past Imperfect Time.

Je voudrais,	I should be willing.	nous voudrions,	we should be willing.
tu voudrais,	thou shouldest be willing.	vous voudriez,	you should be willing.
il voudrait,	he should be willing.	ils voudraient,	they should be willing.

Past Perfect Time.

Je voulusse,	I might be willing.	nous voulussions,	we might be willing.
tu voulusses,	thou mightest be willing.	vous voulussiez,	you might be willing.
il voulût,	he might be willing.	ils voulussent,	they might be willing.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

veuille,	be willing.	veullions,	let us be willing.
qu'il veuille,	let him be willing.	veulliez,	be willing.
		qu'ils veuillent,	let them be willing.

PARTICIPLES.

voulant,	being willing.
voulu.	been willing.

241. Before I quit these conjugations of regular verbs and of irregular verbs, I must give you some further advice relative to the learning of them, and of every thing relating to the verbs. You must have seen, before now, that the *verbs* constitute the most important part of a language. To have a thorough knowledge of this part of speech is absolutely necessary to the acquirement of any thing approaching perfection in the language; I therefore beseech you to bestow great pains on this part of your study. Write down the conjugations of all the regular verbs several times over. Make it a duty to conjugate a regular verb of each conjugation *every day* for some time. And, as to the *thirty-nine* Irregulars, you should conjugate them all, that is to say, write the conjugations over so often, that at last you are able to write the whole of the conjugations down, from the first to the last, *without making a single blunder*; for, until you can do this, you do not understand these important words sufficiently.

242. In order to assist the memory in the case of the GENDERS OF NOUNS, I have, in paragraph 183, described a *little book* that I made for the purpose. To effect a similar purpose with regard to the VERBS, I made a CARD, which I carried constantly in my pocket-book. One side of this Card exhibited an *abridgment of the ten conjugations of regular verbs*. So that, if I were absent from my books; if I were walking or riding, and thinking about any particular verb, I could take out my *Card*, and refresh my memory. The other side of the *Card* exhibited a *complete list of the irregulars*, with an abridged conjugation of each. I shall, presently, give you a copy of this Card; and from it

you may make one for yourself. On the *Regular Side* the *Card* leaves out the *second persons* of all the verbs; but, having all the rest under your eye, you can make no mistake as to these parts of the verb. On the *Irregular Side* of the *Card* you have, after the infinitive, only the *first person singular* of the verbs, and the *two Participles*. The *Card* will contain no more; but these will be, in most cases, sufficient to call to your recollection the manner of conjugating the verb. At any rate, this side of the *Card* will always be at hand to tell you whether any verb, about which you may want information, be a *regular* or an *irregular*. This *Card* will be very convenient when you are translating from English into French. It will, in many cases, save you the trouble of searching the Dictionary, or of turning over the leaves of your Grammar.

243. When you have done all that I have directed above, you will, before you enter on the next Letter, which will introduce you to the SYNTAX, try yourself a little as to your knowledge of the verbs; and this you will do in the following manner. Go back to paragraph 170. There are little *Exercises* from A to M. Write down the *verbs* that you find in the first; that is, in A. You will find them to be, *est, chante, a, apprend, parler, siffler, and fait*. Take these verbs, write them down upon a piece of paper, and, against each, write down the *number of the conjugation* that it belongs to, the *mode*, the *time*, the *person*; and, if it be an *irregular*, write down that, and any other particular belonging to it. I here give you an example.

est: Irregular verb; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb *être*.

chante: Regular verb; first conjugation; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb *chanter*.

a: Irregular verb; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb *avoir*.

apprend: Irregular verb; conjugated like *prendre*; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb *apprendre*.

parler: Regular verb; first conjugation; infinitive mode.

siffler: Regular verb; first conjugation; infinitive mode.

fait: Regular verb; sixth conjugation; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb *faire*.

244. When you have written against the verbs, look for the verbs in the *Dictionary*, or in your List of Irregulars, or look at your *Card*; and you will then find whether your descriptions be correct. When you have thus gone through one of the little *Exercises*, go to another, and you will get through the whole in the course of a day. These *Exercises* consist of sentences of very simple construction, and having a great part of their verbs in the present time; so that, when you have gone through these *Exercises* in the manner above pointed out, you may take the verbs which you find in any two or three pages of your Exercises in the Syntax, where you will find verbs in all the Modes and all the Times. I now give you the *Card*, in pages 219 and 220.

<i>Infinitive and Participles.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Imperfect.</i>	<i>Past Perfect.</i>	<i>Future.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Imperfect.</i>	<i>Past Perfect.</i>
ROUVER trouvait trouvés	trouve trouve trouvons trouvent	trouvais trouvais trouvions trouvions	trouvai trouvai trouvâmes trouvèrent	trouverai trouvera trouverons trouveront	trouve trouve trouvons trouvent	trouvais trouvais trouvions trouvions	trouvai trouvai trouvâmes trouvèrent
GIR agissait agissant	agit agit agissons agissent	agissais agissais agissions agissent	agis agis agîmes agirent	agira agira agiront agiront	agisse agisse agissons agissent	agissais agissais agissions agissent	agis agis agîmes agirent
MENTIR mentait mentant	ment ment mentons mentent	mentais mentais mentions mentent	mentis mentis mentîmes mentirent	mentira mentira mentront mentront	mente mente mentons mentent	mentais mentais mentions mentent	mentis mentis mentîmes mentirent
VENIR venait venu	viens viens venons viennent	venais venais venions venaient	vins vins vinmes vinrent	viendra viendra viendront viendront	vienne vienne venons viennent	venais venais venions venaient	vins vins vinmes vinrent
DÉVOIR devait lu	dois dois devons doivent	devais devais devions devaient	dus dus dûmes durent	devrai devra devront devront	doive doive devons doivent	devais devais devions devaient	dus dus dûmes durent
FAIRE esant ait	fait fait faisons font	faisais faisais faisions faisaient	fis fis fîmes firent	fera fera feront feront	fasse fasse faisons fassent	ferais ferais ferions feraient	fis fis fîmes firent
JOINDRE joignait joint	joint joint joignons joignent	joignais joignais joignions joignaient	joignis joignis joignîmes joignirent	joindra joindra joindront joindront	joigne joigne joignons joignent	joignais joignais joignions joignaient	joignis joignis joignîmes joignirent
CROÎTRE croissait cro	crois crois croissons croissent	croissais croissais croissions croissaient	crus crus crûmes crurent	croîtra croîtra croîtront croîtront	croisse croisse croissons croissent	croissais croissais croissions croissaient	crus crus crûmes crurent
CUIRE cuisant cuit	cuis cuis cuissons cuisent	cuisais cuisais cuisions cuisaient	cuisit cuisit cûmes cuisirent	cuira cuira cuiront cuiront	cuise cuise cuisons cuisent	cuissais cuissais cuisions cuisaient	cuisit cuisit cûmes cuisirent
VENDRE vendait vendu	vend vend vendons vendent	vendais vendais vendions vendaient	vendis vendis vendîmes vendirent	vendra vendra vendront vendront	vende vende vendons vendent	vendais vendais vendions vendaient	vendis vendis vendîmes vendirent

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

3e.	INDICATIVE.			SUBJUNCTIVE.			PARTICIPLES.		
	Present.	Past Imperfect.	Past Perfect.	Future.	Present.	Past Imperfect.	Past Perfect.	Active.	Passive.
r	acquiers vais assieds bats buis bouis conchus convaincs condes cours crois cueille dis dors écris fuis hais lais lis mets mouds mens mens nais ouvre pâis prends prens réous revêts ris romps sais suis trais tressaille vaux vais vois veux	acquérails allais asseynais battaïs buis bouis conchais convainquais condais cours crois cueillais disais dormais écrivais fuis hais laisais lissais mettais moudrais menais menais nais ouvrais pâissais prenais prenais résolvais revêttais risais rompais saisais suivais travaillais tressallais vauais vaisais voisais voulais	acquis allai assis battis bus bouis conchus convainquis conduis cours crois cueillis dis dormis écrivis fuis hais lissais lus mis mouds mens mens nais ouvris pâis pris résolus revêtus ris rompis suis suivis tressallais vâus vâus vâus vâus	acquerrai irai asseynrai battrai buis bouis conchurai convaincrai condrai coursrai croirai cueillirai dirai dormirai écrivirai fuirai haïrai lirai lirai mettrai moudrai menrai menrai nairai ouvrirai pâirai pourrai prendrai résoudrai revêtirai rirai romprai saurai suivrai travirai tressallirai vaurai vaisrai voirai voudrai	acquière aille asseye batte boive bouille conclue convainque conduise cours croye cueille dise dorme écrive fute haise lise mette moule meuve naïsse ouvre plaise prenne résolve revête rie rompe sache sueve traie tressaille vaille vire vole veille	acquerrais irais asseynerais battrais buis bouis concherais convaincrais condrais coursais croirais cueillerais dirais dormirais écrivais fuirais haïrais lirais lirais mettrais moudrais menrais menrais nairais ouvrerais pâirais pourrais prendrais résoudrais revêtirais rirais romprais saurais suivrais traverais tressallirais vaurais vaisrais voirais voudrais	acquiesse allasse asseysse battisse buisse bouillisse concluisse convainquisse conduisise coursisse croysse cueillisse disse dormisse écrivisse fuïsse hussse lissse mussse moudisse moussse nussse ouvrisse ouvisse pussse pussse prenussse résolussse revêtussse rissse rompissse sussse suivissse tressallissse vâussse vâussse vâussse vâussse	acquérant allant asseyant battant buant bouillant concluant convainquant conduisant coursant croisant cueillant disant dormant écrivant fuyant haissant haissant lisant lisant mettant moulant mourant mourant naissant ouvrant plaissant pouvant prenant résolvant revêtant riant rompant sachant suivant suivant trayant tressaillant valant vivant vivant vivant	acquies allé assis battu bu bouilli conclu convaincu condu coursu crou cru cueilli dit dormi écrit fui hai li li mis moulu mort mort na né ouvert pu pu pris résolu revêtu ri rompu su suivi suivi suivi trait tressailli valu vécu vu vu

245. Before I quit the conjugations, let me once more observe, that in *writing* certain parts of some of the verbs, great authorities differ. I observed before, that some write *je vinse*, and others *je vinsse*: some write *je cous*, and others *je couds*. There are several other verbs with regard to the writing of some parts of which there is some little difference in the practice of different writers. But this is a matter of no consequence, provided you *adhere to one practice*.

[NOTE.—It will be useful, as with the compounds of *Avoir* and *Être*, for the learner to have one example of an active verb conjugated, throughout, with *Avoir*, in the compound form. The verb *Trouver* will, therefore, be thus given, on the next page.]

COMPOUND FORM OF TROUVER, WITH THE AUXILIARY AVOIR.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Avoir trouvé, | To have found.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Compound of the *Present Time*.

j'ai trouvé,	I have found.	nous avons trouvé,	we have found.
tu as trouvé,	thou hast found.	vous avez trouvé,	you have found.
il a trouvé,	he has found.	ils ont trouvé,	they have found.

Compound of the *Past Imperfect Time*.

j'avais trouvé,	I had found.	nous avions trouvé,	we had found.
tu avais trouvé,	thou hadst found.	vous aviez trouvé,	you had found.
il avait trouvé,	he had found.	ils avaient trouvé,	they had found.

Compound of the *Past Perfect Time*.

j'eus trouvé,	I had found.	nous eûmes trouvé,	we had found.
tu eus trouvé,	thou hadst found.	vous eûtes trouvé,	you had found.
il eut trouvé,	he had found.	ils eurent trouvé,	they had found.

Compound of the *Future Time*.

j'aurai trouvé,	I shall have found.	nous aurons trouvé,	we shall have found.
tu auras trouvé,	thou shalt have found.	vous aurez trouvé,	you shall have found.
il aura trouvé,	he shall have found.	ils auront trouvé,	they shall have found.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Compound of the *Present Time*.

j'aie trouvé,	I may have found.	nous ayons trouvé,	we may have found.
tu aies trouvé,	thou mayest have found.	vous ayez trouvé,	you may have found.
il ait trouvé,	he may have found.	ils aient trouvé,	they may have found.

Compound of the *Past Imperfect Time*.

j'aurais trouvé,	I should have found.	nous aurions trouvé,	we should have found.
tu aurais trouvé,	thou shouldst have found.	vous auriez trouvé,	you should have found.
il aurait trouvé,	he should have found.	ils auraient trouvé,	they should have found.

Compound of the *Past Perfect Time*.

j'eusse trouvé,	I might have found.	nous eussions trouvé,	we might have found.
tu eusses trouvé,	thou mightest have found.	vous eussiez trouvé,	you might have found.
il eût trouvé,	he might have found.	ils eussent trouvé,	he might have found.

PARTICIPLES COMPOUNDED.

The *active* of AVOIR with the *passive* of TROUVER.

Ayant trouvé, | having found.

LETTER XV.

SYNTAX GENERALLY CONSIDERED.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

246. In paragraph 27, which you will now read again, I described to you what SYNTAX meant. It is the art of *constructing sentences*: it is the business of *making sentences* according to the rules of grammar. All that you have hitherto learned is, how to construct, or make, or form *words*; how to *vary the spelling* of articles and nouns and pronouns and adjectives to make them express the different numbers and genders and cases, and how to *vary the spelling* of verbs to make them express the different modes, times, and persons, and also to make your spelling accord with the rules relating to the conjugations. These are the things which you have hitherto learned; and they relate to the *making of words*: to the spelling of words in a *proper manner*; and to the making of the *proper changes in their form*, according to the change of circumstances. This is what you have learned; and this is ETYMOLOGY.

247. SYNTAX is quite a different thing. It teaches the forming of *sentences*. In the forming of sentences you have to attend to what is called *concord*, and also to what is called *government*. Concord is only another word for *agreement*. The words of a sentence must *agree* with each other, according to the rules of grammar. They sometimes *govern* each other; that is to say, one word *causes*, or *requires*, another word to be

in such or such a form. If I say, *le chapeau blanche*, my words *disagree*; there is not *concord*, because I have the *feminine adjective* with the *masculine noun*. I ought to say *le chapeau blanc*; and then I have *concord* in my sentence.

248. As to *government*, if I, for instance, say, *il faut que j'écris une lettre*, my words do not govern each other according to the laws of grammar: for, *il faut* requires the verb that comes after it to be in the *subjunctive* mode; and *écris* is, as you will know by this time, the *Indicative* mode of *écrire*. The *Subjunctive* is *écrive*; and, therefore, I ought to say, *il faut que j'écrive une lettre*. But, say you, how am I to know what words govern other words, and in what manner words are to agree? You cannot know these things until you be taught them; and SYNTAX is to teach you:

249. Besides, however, the *concord* and *government*, there is the *placing* of the words. We, for instance, say in English, *a wise man*; but the French say, *un homme sage*. We say, *white paper*; they say, *papier blanc*. Then, there is the placing of *phrases*, or parts of sentences; and in both languages, we must take care that we place all the parts properly; for, if we do not, our meaning will not be clear to the reader. However, you will see enough of this when you come to the *Exercises*, with which the rules of Syntax will be interspersed.

LETTER XVI.

THE POINTS AND MARKS USED IN WRITING.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

250. The forms of all these Points and Marks were given you in paragraph 24. Of the *accents* I need say nothing here. They belong to the ETYMOLOGY, as they are component *parts of words*. But, the *points* and *marks* come under our present head; because they are necessary in the *forming of sentences*.

251. The FULL POINT, which in French is *le point*, and which is thus formed (.), is used at the end of every complete sentence. The COLON, which the French call *deux points*, and which is written thus (:), is next to the Full Point in requiring a complete sense in the words after which it is placed. The SEMICOLON, called, in French, *un point et une virgule*, and which is formed thus (;), is used to set off parts of sentences when the Comma is thought not to be quite sufficient. The COMMA, *la virgule*, in French, is written thus (,), and is used to mark the shortest pauses in reading, and the smallest divisions in writing.

252. This work of pointing is, in a great degree, a matter of taste. Some persons put into one sentence what others mould into two or three sentences. It is a matter that cannot be reduced to precise rules; but, whether we write in French or in English, these points are necessary; and we ought to be attentive in using them.

253. The Mark of INTERROGATION (?) is put at the

close of words which put a question. The mark of ADMIRATION (!) is used to denote surprise. The APOSTROPHE, or mark of ELISION, is a comma placed above the line ('). The HYPHEN connects words (-).

254. As to the marks for the purpose of reference, such as *+‡, and the like, they do not belong to grammar. People may make them of what form they please, and may call them what they please. But the Points and Marks in the three foregoing paragraphs belong to grammar: they assist in the forming of, and in the giving of meaning to, *sentences*; and for that reason it is, that they have been now, for the second time, pointed out to your attention.

LETTER XVII.

· SYNTAX OF ARTICLES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

255. You will now turn back to Letter V., and read it, once more, carefully through. Then read paragraphs from 77 to 85 inclusive. These two parts of the Grammar will have taught you a great deal as to the Article. In the next Letter also, which will treat of the Syntax of Nouns, there will, in treating of *Nouns*, be something about the use of the Article; but, still, there is much belonging more directly to the Article itself; and this I shall say here. The thing that you now want to know is, how the manner of using the Articles in French *differs* from that of using them in English; and this we are now going to see.

256. There are, you know, the INDEFINITE Article, the DEFINITE Article, and what I called the COMPOUND Article; that is, the Article *united* with the preposition *de* or *à*.

257. Our INDEFINITE ARTICLE is *a* (which becomes *an* when followed by a vowel): the French is *un*, or *une*. In both languages this Article can be applied to nouns in the *singular* only. We apply it to *hundred*, *thousand*, and other words of multitude; but, this is no deviation from the rule; for, we consider the *hundred*, or other number, as *one body*, parcel, or mass. The French do not, however, use this article before *cent* (hundred) and *mille* (thousand), but say, *cent pommes*,

and not, *un cent pommes*; though we must say, *a* hundred apples.

258. When we use this Article after *such* (*tel* or *telle*), and before a noun, the French give the phrase a complete turn; thus:

Such a book is a treasure, | *Un tel livre* est un trésor.

That is to say, "*a such book*." We say, *Mr. such a one*; they say, *Monsieur un tel*; that is, *Mr. a such*. And mind, though theirs sounds shockingly to us, ours does the same to them. We use our article after *so* in certain phrases; thus, *so good a man*. * The French say, in such a case, *un si brave homme*; that is to say, *a so good man*.

259. We, in speaking of nouns of weight, measure, or tale, mostly use *a* (or *an*); but the French, in such cases, use the *definite* Article; as:

I sell my corn at six shillings *a* bushel.
Je vends mon blé à six schelins *le* boisseau.

We in English, *may*, in general, use the *definite* article in these cases. We *may* say, six shillings *the* bushel; five pence *the* score; and so on: but we *do not* use this mode of expression in general; and the French *cannot* do otherwise. We cannot very well do it before *piece*. We cannot, with any propriety, say, ducks at two shillings *the piece*. But this is the mode that the French must make use of. They must say, deux schelins *la pièce*.

260. We, in speaking of portions of *time*, make use of the *indefinite* article, where the French make use of *par* (by); as, ten shillings *a* day; which, in French, is, dix schelins *par* jour; that is to say, literally, ten shillings *by* day, which is evidently more reasonable than

our mode of expression. We say, working *by* the day. We also say, paid *by* the day. Why not say, then, ten shillings *by* day, and not *a* day? The meaning of our phrase is, so much *for* a day; and the meaning of the French is, so much day *by* day.

261. We put *a* (or *an*) after the verb *to be*, before a noun in the singular, expressing profession, rank, state, situation, country, or any distinctive mark; as, he is *a* gardener; I am *an* Englishman. The French do not do this; they say, *il est jardinier; je suis Anglais*. This observation applies, however, only to cases where the business of the phrase is *solely* that of expressing the distinctive mark. If it have other objects, the rule does not hold; as:

He has *a* gardener,
I see *an* Englishman,

| Il a *un* jardinier.
Je vois *un* Anglais.

You see, the article is, in the former cases, left out, in the French, with very good reason; for, the words *gardener* and *Englishman*, being used *solely* for the purpose of designating the *profession* and the *country* of the man, the article cannot be *necessary*; but in the latter cases, there is something more. Here the main business is, to make it understood that he *has* a gardener, and that I *see* an Englishman.

262. We put *a* (or *an*) after *what*, in an exclamation; as, what *a* house! The French never do this: they say, *quelle maison!* When there is another *a* in English, and two nouns, as, what *a* fool of *a* lawyer, the French simply put the preposition before the last noun; as, *quel sot d'avocat!* When we use an adjective in sentences of this sort, we still use the article; but the French never. When our exclamation begins by *what*, followed by *a*, and goes on to use a verb before

it has done, the difference in the two languages is great indeed; as:

What *a* good boy Richard is!
 Le bon garçon que Richard!
 What *a* fine country Italy is!
 Le beau pays que l'Italie!

These two sentences, put into English literally, would stand thus:

The good boy that Richard!
 The fine country that Italy!

These seem, at first sight, to be two pieces of prime nonsense; but they contain perfectly good sense; and are much more obviously consonant with reason than the English sentences are. They are purely exclamatory: they, therefore, need neither article nor verb. They are fully as expressive in French as they are in English; and they are, beyond all comparison, more elegant.

263. It is hardly necessary for me to repeat to you, that the article must agree in *gender* with the noun to which it applies. Our article has no change to express gender; but this is a most important matter in French, and must be scrupulously attended to. There are, as you have seen, some nouns which are masculine in one sense, and feminine in another, though spelled, in both cases, in the same way. If, for instance, I say, *un ange*, I mean *an angel*; but, if I say, *une ange*, I mean *a fish* of that name. If I say, *un aune*, I mean *an alder tree*; but if I say, *une aune*, I mean *an ell*. Nothing can more forcibly show the necessity of strict attention to the gender of the articles.

264. Being now about to dismiss this *indefinite* article, let me again remind you, that, in French, these two words, *un* and *une*, are *indeterminate pro-*

nouns (see paragraph 99), and also *adjectives of number*, as well as *articles*. In short, they answer to our word *one* in all its capacities, except when our *one* answers to the French *on*, which is a word widely different from *un* or *une*. It is of great importance, that you bear in mind, that *un* and *une* answer to our *one* as well as to our *a*; as:

A man had *one* horse, *one* cow, and two oxen.
Un homme avait *un* cheval, *une* vache, et deux bœufs.

Thus, you see, *un* and *une* answer to our *one* as well as to our *a*.

265. Having now done with my rules about the indefinite article, I shall give you what is called an *Exercise* relating to that article; that is to say, I shall give you some phrases in English for you to translate into French. There must, of course, be, in these phrases, words of the other parts of speech; and these you must translate also; but I shall make the phrases so simple, so easy, that you will have little to attend to besides your articles, which are, just at present, to be the object of your care. The first sentence is, "*a hundred pounds, five shillings.*" You look into your Dictionary, and there you find, that hundred is *cent*, that pound is *livre*, that shilling is *schelin*, and that five is *cing*. Your rule has just told you, that the English *a* is not, in this case, expressed in French. Your translation will, therefore, be this: "*cent livres, cinq schelins.*" If the phrase had contained a little more; thus: "*He had a hundred pounds, five shillings;*" here you know that *He* is *Il*, and that *had* is *avait*. Your translation must, of course, be: "*Il avait cent livres, cinq schelins.*" You will now proceed to the performance of the first Exercise.

EXERCISE I.

1. A hundred pounds, five shillings.
2. Pens at six shillings a hundred.
3. Ducks at ten pence a picce.
4. Have you heard speak of such a thing?
5. If such a one come hither.
6. A thousand soldiers have perished.
7. A hundred have returned.
8. He is so good a father.
9. A garden, having a wall on one side.
10. It is rare to see so bad a man.
11. A good poet, but not a Boileau.
12. He is a doctor, and his brother is an attorney.
13. He is rich, a thing that he likes.
14. Such a thing has seldom happend.
15. Such a fault is despicable.
16. What a noise ! What a fine flower !
17. What a pretty girl Emma is !
18. What a rich man her father is !
19. What charms money has !
20. What a horrible cry ! What a fool of a boy !
21. Such a mistake surprises me.
22. A Jew's beard. One Barbary horse.
23. A hen with one chick. A veil and one sail.
24. A box of books. A book and a flower.
25. One gardener and a footman. A hundred knives.
26. An hour and a half. Half an hour.

This will be sufficient for the present. Phrases like these will frequently occur as you proceed in the future Exercises. But in order that you may, when you have finished your Exercise, know whether your translation be correct; or, in other words, whether

you have well learned thus far ;• in order that you may *know* this, I shall, in Letter XXVIII., put the French of all these Exercises ; and, as the French will have *numbers* to correspond with those of the English, you can, as soon as you have finished *an Exercise*, turn to my translation, when you will see whether yours be correct. If you work under the eye of a *master*, he will tell you at once. But, pray, have the good sense to *finish* your Exercise *before* you look at my translation ! By a contrary mode of proceeding you may possibly deceive your master for a while ; but, bear in mind, it is *you* who must be the loser by it. As I am here giving you, for the first time, instructions relative to your *Exercises*, let me caution you against doing your work in a *hasty* and *slovenly* manner. Make a *book* to write all your exercises in ; but, before you insert any translation in your book, you must make it upon a piece of paper ; and, even upon that piece of paper, you ought to write it in a clean, neat, and plain manner. Do not neglect to put any of the *points*, *marks*, or *accents*. When you come to see much of the writing of French people, you will find that those among them who are illiterate do, as well as the English, disregard these matters in their letters and other manuscripts ; but, let that be no *example* for you : make your writing as correct, if you can, as print itself. This will, in the long run, save you a great deal of that precious thing *time*. I shall so make the Exercises that they will, if you be diligent, lead you gently and easily over every difficulty.

266. Let us now come to the DEFINITE ARTICLE. We have in English only one, and it is always THE. In paragraphs 77 to 85, you have seen how often the

French article changes its form. We are now to see how the manner of using it differs from the manner of using ours. This article is often omitted in French in cases where it must not be omitted in English; and, still oftener is it omitted in English in cases where it is indispensably necessary in French.

267. In both languages it is a general rule that *proper nouns* of *persons* do not take the article before them. See paragraph 53 on the subject of proper nouns. But, the names of *countries*, *provinces*, *islands*, and some other parts or divisions of the earth, take the article in French. Also the names of *metals*, *virtues*, *vices*, *arts*, *sciences*, *grain*, *seed*, and many other things. These do not, as we well know, take the article in English; or, at least, they seldom do. Proper nouns of *cities*, *towns*, and *villages*, follow, with a few exceptions, the rule relative to the proper names of persons. Take a few examples:

France is in Europe,	<i>La France</i> est dans l'Europe.
Normandy is in France,	<i>La Normandie</i> est dans <i>la France</i> .
Rouen is in Normandy,	Rouen est dans <i>la Normandie</i> .
The estates are in Jamaica,	<i>Les biens</i> sont dans <i>la Jamaïque</i> .
Patience is very useful,	<i>La patience</i> est bien utile.
Intemperance destroys health,	<i>L'intempérance</i> détruit <i>la santé</i> .
Wheat is dear,	<i>Le froment</i> est cher.
Iron is heavy,	<i>Le fer</i> est lourd.

There are some exceptions as to the names of those countries which take their names from those of their *capital cities*; as, *Venice*, *Florence*, and others. These, however, will come under your eye in the course of the Exercises, and, therefore, need not be more particularly mentioned here. The French use the article with the proper names of a few celebrated Italian poets and painters. But this is not worthy of particular notice.

268. But, you must observe well, that, when we speak of going *to* a country, of coming *from* it, or remaining *in* it; or, when we speak of something *belonging to* a country; in these cases, the article is not used in French any more than in English. For we say, “il vient *de* France,” and not, *de la* France. We say, “il va *en* France; il demeure *en* France,” and not, *en la* France. We say, “drap *d’*Angleterre,” and not, *de l’*Angleterre. However, there are many exceptions to this rule: there are a great many countries and islands, and some towns and cities, the names of which *always* keep the articles under *all circumstances*. Many of these will, however, come into the Exercises; and, as to those which do not, they very seldom occur. They are of too little importance to occupy a large portion of our time here. The manner of using them is hardly reducible to rule. As to the names of *mountains* and *rivers*, we generally put the article before their names in both languages, and much in the same manner.

269. When we use proper names in the *plural number*, we use the article with them; as *the Tudors*, *the Bourbons*. The French do the same, whether speaking literally or figuratively.

270. Things of which there is but one of the kind, or one collection of the kind, in the creation, as: *sun*, *moon*, *earth*, *world*, *stars*, take the article in both languages, except God, which takes it in neither language; and except that *heaven* and *hell*, which do not take the article in English, take it in French. If the word GOD be restricted in any way, we use the article in both languages; as, *the God of Truth*. And, thus, we may use the other article, for we may say,

a *God of truth*. The two languages do not at all differ in this respect. These exceptions do, however, when we come to the practice, amount to very little. After a few weeks of steady application, these little difficulties all disappear.

271. We, in speaking of persons in certain situations of life, give them the appellation belonging to the situation, and put their proper names after that appellation; as, *Doctor Black, Captain White*. But, in French, you must use the article, and say *le Docteur*, and *le Capitaine*. We do not put *Mr.* before any of these names of titles, offices, posts, occupations, and situations. The French do; and you must take special care not to omit it. You must say, *Monsieur le Prince*, and *Monsieur le Commissaire de Police*. Mark this; for, to say *Mr. the Prince*, in English, would be shocking, and to say *Mr. Prince*, would be an insult.

272. In speaking of a thing *in general*, that is to say, in merely naming the *sort* of thing, we do not use the article in English; as, "*bread* is necessary to *man*." Again, "*dogs* guard *sheep*." But in these, and all similar cases, the article is used in French; and you must say, "*le* pain est nécessaire à *l'homme*;" and "*les* chiens gardent *les* moutons."

273. When we use the *singular* number to express a whole kind; as, "*the dog* is a faithful animal;" then the article is applied by us as well as by the French; but, if we use the noun in the plural, we say *dogs*, and the French, *les chiens*. However, there is an exception to the former part of this rule; for, if we employ the singular *man* to express the whole kind, we do not use the article, and the French do use it. Let the two

great rival poets, POPE and BOILEAU, furnish us with examples.

The proper study of mankind is *man*,
Le plus sot animal, à mon avis, c'est *l'homme*.

274. In the French language, as in our own, the definite article is used in some cases, and omitted in others, from, it would seem, mere habit or fashion. We say, for instance, he is *in town*; but we must say, he is *in the* country. And *why* must we? They say, *en ville*; but they say, *dans la ville*, and the same of the country. There are certain *prepositions* which require the article after them, and there are others after which you cannot correctly put the article. The examples afforded by the Exercises will, however, make all this familiar to you in a short time.

EXERCISE II.

1. America, Asia, Africa, and Europe.
2. Prussia is a part of Germany.
3. Venice, Valencia, and Grenada.
4. He comes from Rochelle.
5. He lives at Havre de Grace.
6. He has set out for Cayenne.
7. I live in England.
8. You come from Portugal.
9. They live in Martinico.
10. She is going to Italy.
11. The Thames. The Rhine.
12. The Severn. The Seine.
13. Drunkenness is detestable.
14. Murder deserves death.
15. Loam at top, clay next, and then chalk.
16. Barley is dear this year.

17. Horses eat grass and hay.
18. The horse is a useful animal.
19. Birds fly, hawks fly. Hawks kill other birds.
20. He comes from China. Summer is past.
21. The cloth of England. The wine of Burgundy.
22. The horses of Flanders. The cows of Normandy.
23. Trees grow well in fine summers.
24. I see that the trees grow well.
25. Captain White has set off.
26. How do you do, Captain?
27. Pears are ripe in Autumn. Birds sing in Spring.
28. Dr. Johnson dreaded death.
29. Queen Elizabeth and Pope Sixtus.
30. Rooks eat corn. The boys kill the rooks.
31. Philosophers disagree.
32. He is in the country. She was in town.
33. God, heaven, and hell.
34. Gardens look gay in Spring.
35. Flowers fade in Summer. They die in Autumn.
36. Love was the subject of the letter.
37. Apples are very good fruit.
38. The apples are not dear this season.
39. Bread, meat, flour, butter.
40. Earth, air, fire, water, all combine.
41. The air is cold to-day. Winter is near.
42. Cheese is very scarce. Foxes kill fowls.
43. I like black better than blue.
44. He likes hunting. Exercise is good for man.
45. Prudent men avoid quarrels.
46. Birds sing while sluggards snore.
47. Here, man! That way, woman!
48. Light and darkness, heat and cold.
49. Articles are a part of speech.

50. He has arms. He has black hair.
51. The Dutch carry on commerce.
52. The Americans divide the Lakes with the English.
53. They are going to Canada.
54. Nova Scotia is a cold country.
55. Indian corn grows well in France.
56. Tobacco is a product of Virginia.
57. Cotton comes from Georgia.
58. From Florida, and from the Brazils.
59. The Peruvians have gold in abundance.
60. The Mexicans have a great deal of silver.

275. The COMPOUND ARTICLE (as I call it) is the last that we have to treat of. I call it *compound*, because it is made up of an *article* and a *preposition*. Before you go any further, read, once more, paragraph 79, and also paragraph 85. You see, then, that the words *du*, *de la*, *des*, are, in fact, not simply articles, but a sort of *compound* words, answering, in many cases, to our *some*. In hardly any respect do the two languages differ so materially from each other as they do in this respect.

276. These little French words are sometimes partly *articles*, and sometimes they are really *adjectives*. When they are the former, we must render them in English by our article and preposition; when they are the latter, we must render them by some word of qualification as to quantity. In this phrase, “parlez *du* “cheval,” the little word is article and preposition; and, therefore, we render it by our article and preposition, thus: “speak *of the* horse.” But in this phrase, “j’ai “*du* foin,” the same little word is an adjective; and, therefore, we render it by an adjective. *Some* is, in

general, the word; but we may say a *quantity*, a *parcel*; or, we may use any words denoting an uncertain, unfixed, quantity; or, if it were the plural, *des*, any words denoting an uncertain or unfixed *number*. The word *some*, and, in interrogations the word *any*, and all those other words expressive of quantity or number, must be *adjectives*, as you must clearly perceive when you reflect on the office of the adjective. In my "*Maître d'Anglais*" I had this illustration of the matter.

J'ai <i>plusieurs</i> amis ici,		I have <i>many</i> friends here.
J'ai <i>quelques</i> amis ici,		I have <i>some</i> friends here.
J'ai <i>des</i> amis ici,		I have <i>some</i> friends here.

Now, *plusieurs* and *quelques*, thus used, are unquestionably *adjectives*, purely adjectives. And, if they are adjectives, is not this *des* an adjective also?

277. What we have to do, then, is to consider when it is an adjective that we have to render into French, and when it is an article along with a preposition. We have seen, that in numerous cases where we make use of no article at all, the French use the definite article; and we shall now see that when we use *some*, *any*, or any phrase *limiting* the noun as to *quantity* or *number*, and yet leaving the quantity or number *unfixed*, we must render such word, or phrase, into French by *du*, *de la*, or *des*. Our *some*, or *any*, is made use of to designate an *unfixed* part of an *undefined* whole; as, "give me *some sugar*." Here the largeness or the smallness of the part is not fixed on; and the whole mass of sugar out of which the part is to come, is not at all defined, or pointed out. But, if you define the latter, you must use the definite article; as: "give me *some of the sugar which you have bought*

"to-day." Bear in mind that the French have no words that, in this work of limiting nouns, answer to our *some* or *any*. The business of these words is performed by *du*, *de la*, and *des*.

278. Bear in mind that a noun must be used, first, in a general, or boundless, sense, expressing the *whole of a species*; as, *trees grow, hares run*; or, second, in a strictly confined sense, expressing *particular individuals*, or bodies, or masses; as, *the trees which are in my garden, the hares which I have killed*; or, third, in a sense which signifies limitation, but without at all *fixing the limits*. In the first case, the article is used in French, and not in English; in the second case, it is used in both languages; in the third case, it is not used in English, but it is used in French, united with *de*, and, in this its use, it answers to our *some* or *any*; though, in many cases, it is used when we omit even the *some*, or the *any*; as in this phrase, "he sells *books*;" in which case the French say, "il vend *des* livres."

279. However, if there be an adjective coming directly *before* the noun, the French do not use the article, but merely the preposition, as was said in paragraph 85. But if the adjective come *after* the noun, the article is used; as, *ils ont du pain, ils ont de bon pain; ils ont du pain blanc*. We say, in these cases, they have *bread*; they have *good bread*, they have *white bread*: or we may, if the case demand it, say, *some bread*; but we use no article and no preposition.

280. After certain words of *quantity* and *number*, as, *beaucoup* (much), *assez* (enough), *peu* (few), and many others, the article is not used, but merely the pre-

position ; which is also the case when we have an adjective or passive participle following some word of number ; as, *quelque chose de bon ; cinq poules de grasses ; dix arpens de terre de labourés*. However, *bien*, when used instead of *beaucoup*, must have the article before the next noun, though *beaucoup* has it not.

281. Many other *niceties* relative to the article might be pointed out, but it would be worse than useless ; because *practice*, which there must be after all, will give you a knowledge of these niceties without further time bestowed on rules. In the Exercise which I am about to give you here, you will find phrases containing examples relative to the indefinite and definite articles, as well as examples relating to what I have called the *compound article*. But you will find, as we advance, that the Exercises will embrace more and more of the parts of speech.

EXERCISE III.

1. He has hay to sell. He has some hay in his cart.
2. Hay is abundant. Hay is dear this year.
3. She wears silk. Silk is very light.
4. Has he any horses ? Yes, he has some horses.
5. Have they any birds ?
6. Dogs bark. He keeps dogs.
7. I hear a noise. I hear a great noise.
8. There are six white and two black.
9. Five killed and one wounded.
10. They have good meat. She has fine eyes.
11. Sheep eat grass. I have some sheep.
12. The sheep that I have sold.
13. You had some cheese. So many books.
14. She will have a good 'deal of bread.

15. A quantity of earth. There is danger.
16. Give us more money. Nothing very rare.
17. Very little wisdom. How many windows?
18. How much land? Much sorrow.
19. Much pleasure. Much patience. Much pain.
20. They are very honest people.
21. Cabbages are plentiful at this time.
22. Some onions and some parsley in the garden.
23. The apple-tree is a garland when in bloom.
24. Cherry-trees are very handsome also.
25. Pears are cheap this year.
26. Raspberry-bushes are insignificant things;
27. But their fruit is excellent.
28. The spinach and the kidney-beans.
29. The market is full of vegetables.
30. The hay is all spoiled.
31. Hay will be dear next year.
32. Kidney-beans are very abundant.
33. Lettuces are good in salads.
34. Oil, vinegar, pepper, salt, and mustard, are very
useful things.
35. Olive-oil is much better than poppy-oil.
36. The first is made in France and Italy.
37. The last is made in Germany.
38. Stones do the land no harm. A great quantity
of land.
39. Larks remain in the fields.
40. Fish, flesh, fowl, grain, flour.
41. We have some fish. Bees do not like wasps.
42. Honey is very useful in a family.

LETTER XVIII.

SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

282. In paragraphs from 51 to 85 you had the Etymology of Nouns. That taught you that you had to attend to the *gender*, the *number*, and the *case*. The TASK which you had set you in Letter XIV., and in paragraphs from 174 to 180, taught you how to store your memory with regard to the *gender* of nouns, which, as you now well know, is the great thing of all, as far as relates to this part of speech.

283. As to the placing of nouns in sentences, there is little difference between the French and the English. The peculiarities are only two or three in number. These I will point out; and then, an Exercise, embracing a great variety of nouns, will be quite sufficient, especially after what has been said on the subject of the *Article*, which does, in fact, belong also to the Noun.

284. We, in English, express *possession* by putting an *s* and an apostrophe to the end of the singular noun, and if the noun be plural, an apostrophe only; as, *John's book*, *the two brothers' book*. In French this mode of expression is wholly unknown. They say, *le livre de Jean*, *le livre des deux frères*. We can say, *the top of the house*, or *the house's top*; but, in French, it is always *the top of the house*, *le haut de la maison*. There can be no mistake here, for the French rule is invariable.

285. There is a great proneness in our language to make *compound* words; as, *gold-watch*. The French

have none of these words: they say, *montre d'or*, *watch of gold*. The same may be said of our compound words which express the *kind* or *occupation* of the noun; as, *water-rat*, *school-master*, *the kitchen-door*. All these are rendered into French in the way just mentioned; *rat d'eau*, *maître d'école*, *la porte de la cuisine*.

286. These compound words of ours are sometimes translated into French by the help of *à* and not of *de*; as, *drinking-glass*, *verre à boire*. This seems reasonable, because it means, glass *to drink* with; but they also say, *cruche à l'eau*, *water-jug*, and *poudre à canon*, *gunpowder*. It is not easy to give a rule without numerous exceptions for the using of *à* and *de* in answer to our compounds; but this much may be said, that when the first part of our compound expresses an action which is performed by the use of the thing expressed by the latter word of the compound, the French make use of *à* and not of *de*; as, *writing-paper*, *papier à écrire*; *dining-room*, *salle à manger*. In other cases they make use of *de*.

287. In translating the following Exercise, pay particular attention to the *genders*, and to the forming of the *plural numbers*. Have your *little book* of the genders of nouns before you. The rules for forming the *plural numbers* which you have in paragraph 68, you must look at again. Bear in mind that the *articles* and *adjectives* must *agree* in *gender* and *number* with the *nouns* to which they apply. Bear in mind that there are many nouns which are feminine in one sense, and masculine in another. Before you translate a phrase, consider well the meaning of the English noun; and then think of the *gender* of the French noun by which you are going to translate the English noun.

EXERCISE IV.

1. The house is large. A hand and a foot.
2. Two houses and three fields. Four sons, five daughters.
3. Six children, seven friends. A horse, a cow, a pig.
4. Eight horses, nine cows, ten pigs. Eleven walnuts. One walnut.
5. One child, twelve children.
6. An engagement. Thirteen engagements.
7. A very fine cabbage. Fourteen cabbages.
8. A black hat. Fifteen hats.
9. A great deal of wealth.
10. Sixteen owls. Seventeen nails.
11. Evils in great number. A very great evil.
12. The eye of the horse. My eyes are weak.
13. The water is clear. The waters of Bath.
14. Eighteen baskets. Nineteen night-caps.
15. Twenty garden-doors. Twenty-one river-fish.
16. The wolf's head. The cat's claw.
17. The king's palace. Thirty gold candlesticks.
18. Forty pewter plates. Fifty silver spoons.
19. Sixty leather shoes. Seventy wooden huts.
20. Eighty fire-shovels. Ninety lambs.
21. A hundred oxen. A thousand birds.
22. God is all-powerful. The gods of the Greeks.
23. A solitary place. Solitary places.
24. He has a post. In the post-office.
25. A pound of bread. A book for you.
26. The king's page. A page of a book.
27. At his house. From the street.
28. To the field. To the parks.

29. Chapter the first. Book the second.
30. Walk in, sir. Ask the gentleman to come in.
31. Sir, I have seen the gentlemen. Walk in, gentlemen.
32. As many fine gardens. Before the throne.
33. Except the servant. Amongst the bushes.
34. In the bird's nest. Since Tuesday last.
35. Towards London. After the coach.
36. The lords stay here with the ladies.
37. Get away, Mr. Impudence.
38. River-water to make beer with.
39. Madam, I have seen the lady.
40. Ladies, I am going away.
41. Go to Mr. White's.
42. William, John, and Richard's property.
43. Whose pen is that?
44. The situation of this country.
45. The governor's situation.
46. Sheep's wool is good to make cloth.
47. They talk of the lady's house.
48. Mrs. White is dead.
49. Joseph, Peter, and some friends.
50. A silver spoon full of wine.
51. A mug full of beer.
52. This path is a hundred feet long.
53. His mother's death. His son's marriage.
54. His brother's good luck.
55. He has dealt in copper.
56. Coaches and horses cost money.
57. The oak is a fine tree.
58. Oak-boards are durable.
59. Elm-trees in the hedges.
60. The sand-hill is high.

LETTER XIX.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

288. Now read over very carefully the paragraphs from 87 to 100 inclusive. Do not think that this is not necessary. It is necessary, and therefore do it. You will not understand what I am now about to write half so well, unless you first read over again the part that I have just pointed out.

289. Having read those paragraphs, you will have again seen, that there are FIVE CLASSES of Pronouns; that is to say, the *Personal*; the *Possessive*; the *Relative*; the *Demonstrative*; and the *Indeterminate*. In the paragraphs just mentioned I treated of the etymology of these; I am now going to treat of their Syntax; that is, to give rules for using them in sentences; and, as this is a very important part of speech, you ought here to be uncommonly attentive.

290. *First Class*, or PERSONAL PRONOUNS.—After all the repetitions in the Conjugations of the Verbs, it would be waste of time to dwell upon definitions of the personal pronouns. You must know what they are as well as I do. But that which you cannot yet know so well is, how they are used in sentences. Look now at paragraph 91. Read it very carefully. I there tell you that the Syntax will teach you something; and I am now about to make good my word.

291. These *cases* are things of great importance with regard to pronouns, and especially with regard

to French pronouns. The French personal pronouns are, in many instances, placed in the sentences very differently from ours; and, in some instances, one word in French makes two words in English. Hence the matter demands a great deal of attention; but that attention will soon do the business.

292. The verb must now be brought into great use in the Exercises; because, without the verb, the use of the pronoun cannot be explained. For instance, I have to tell you that, in this phrase, *I see you*, though the second pronoun comes *after the verb* in English, it must come *before the verb* in French; as, *je vous vois*. Thus, you see, we could not get on at all here without knowing a great deal about the verbs.

293. The use of the personal pronouns in their *nominative* cases is plain enough: *je, tu, il, elle, nous, vous, ils, elles*, answer to our *I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they*. But *nous* is both *we* and *us*; and, then, there is the manner of placing *nous, vous, lui*, and others of them, in the sentence, which is very different from our manner of placing them.

294. Look at the tables in paragraph 91. There you have all the personal pronouns, first in their singular and then in their plural number. You have them exhibited in their number, person, gender, and case, and in both languages. Let us now take them, then, one by one, and compare the manner of using them in French with the manner of using them in English.

295. The *first person singular* is I—JE. Our *I* is always a capital letter; but the French *je* is written like another word. Our *I* is sometimes separated from the verb, and placed after a conjunction, leaving

another verb to be understood; as, you are richer *than I*. But the French *je* is never thus used: you must never say, vous êtes plus riche *que je*. The place of the French pronoun *je* is before the verb only; and it is never, as our *I* is, separated from the verb, nor placed after a conjunction, as in the above case. In interrogations the *je* may come after the verb; but you will see enough of that by-and-by. In the possessive case our *I* becomes *of me*, and in the objective, *me*. In the French, the *je* becomes, in some cases, *moi* in the nominative, *de moi* in the possessive, and *me*, or *moi*, in the objective. We say, *of me*, but the French must say, *de moi*, and never *de me*, or *à me*; though, observe, their *me*, in other cases, answers to our *me*. This same *moi* is sometimes answered by our *I*. If there were only the *je* and the *me* in French to answer our *I* and *me*, we should do very well with them: but there comes in this *moi* to puzzle us; and it is to this, therefore, that we have to pay strict attention. I have just said, that the place of *je* is before the verb; as:

Je frappe souvent,
Je bois du vin,

I strike often.
I drink wine.

When our *I* is placed after the verb, or after a conjunction, leaving a verb to be understood, it is not answered by *je*, but by *moi*; as:

It is I who act,
He knows it better than I,
He writes as well as I,
She is wiser than I,

C'est moi qui agis.
Il le sait mieux que moi.
Il écrit aussi bien que moi.
Elle est plus sage que moi.

In these instances we see *moi* answering to our *I*. Let us now see it answering to our *me*; which it always does when there is a preposition coming before the French pronoun, or when the verb in French comes

before the pronoun. I beg you to pay attention to this; and to observe well the following examples:

He comes to me,	Il vient à <i>moi</i> .
Give me some paper,	Donnez- <i>moi</i> du papier.
They speak of me,	Ils parlent <i>de moi</i> .
It is for me,	C'est <i>pour moi</i> .

And not, il vient à *me*, and so on. But when there is no preposition coming before the pronoun, and when the verb does not come before it, the English *me* is rendered in French by *me*; as:

He strikes <i>me</i> ,	Il <i>me</i> frappe.
You give <i>me</i> some paper,	Vous <i>me</i> donnez du papier.
They speak to <i>me</i> ,	Ils <i>me</i> parlent.
It is agreeable to <i>me</i> ,	Il <i>m'est</i> agréable.
James has stricken <i>me</i> ,	Jacques <i>m'a</i> frappé.

You see that we have no word in English that answers to this *moi*. We have, for the first person singular, only the *I* and the *me*, both of which, as we have just seen, are, sometimes, answered by *moi*; to know *when* this is, I have, I hope, now taught you.

296. Before I proceed to the *second person*, let me tell you that I shall reserve the rules for *placing* the personal pronouns, till I have, in the above way, gone through the three persons plural, as well as singular.

297. The *second person singular* is THOU—TU. The pronouns of this person singular, are, as you have seen in paragraph 93, very rarely used. We use, in both languages, the plural pronoun instead of the singular: we say *you*, and not *thou*; and *vous*, and not *tu*. However, we must notice them in the same way as we should if they were in common use. *Thou* is answered by *tu*; and *thee*, which is our other case of this pronoun, is sometimes answered by *te*, and sometimes by *toi*. Look at the table in paragraph 91.

Observe, that what is said of *moi*, or rather, of the occasions when it is used to answer to our *I* and *me*, applies to *toi* supplying the place of *tu* and *te*. *Toi* is used, as is the case with *moi*, when there is a preposition or a verb before the pronoun; or when there is a conjunction before our *thou*, leaving a verb to be understood. I will take, as nearly as possible, the same examples that I took to explain the use of the pronouns of the first person singular:

Tu frappes souvent,
Tu bois du vin,

Thou strikest often.
Thou drinkest wine.

Here, as was observed in the parallel case in the first person, there is no verb and no preposition coming before the French pronoun, and no conjunction before ours. Therefore the *toi* is not used. But, now, attend to the following examples:

It is *thou* who actest,
He knows it better than *thou*,
He writes as well as *thou*,
She is wiser than *thou*,
He comes to *thee*,
They speak of *thee*,
It is for *thee*,
He strikes *thee*,
I give *thee* some paper,
They speak to *thee*,
It is agreeable to *thee*,
James has stricken *thee*,

C'est *toi* qui agis.
Il le sait mieux que *toi*.
Il écrit aussi bien que *toi*.
Elle est plus sage que *toi*.
Il vient à *toi*.
Ils parlent de *toi*.
C'est pour *toi*.
Il *te* frappe.
Je *te* donne du papier.
Ils *te* parlent.
Il t'est agréable.
Jacques t'a frappé.

Thus, you see, as *I* and *me* are on certain occasions answered by *moi*, so *thou* and *thee* are answered by *toi*.

298. The *third person singular* is **III—IL**. Gender comes in here; but we will lay the two other genders aside for the present, and speak only of the masculine. The *il* answers to our *he*; as:

Il frappe souvent,
Il boit du vin,

He strikes often.
He drinks wine.

But, here comes the French *lui*, to answer, in this case, the purpose which *moi* and *toi* answer in the instances above given. Look at the table in paragraph 91. You find that *he* is *il*; that *of him* is *de lui*; and that *him* is sometimes *lui* and sometimes *le*. The rule that I gave before applies here. When the French pronoun has a verb or a preposition before it, or when the English pronoun has a conjunction before it, with a verb understood to follow; in these cases the *lui* is used in French instead of *il* and *le*. I shall now take the very same examples that I have just taken to explain my meaning with regard to the first and the second person singular; and when you have well attended to them, and compared the manner of using *lui* with that of using *moi* and *toi*, you will, I think, clearly understand the whole of this matter.

It is *he* who acts,
She knows it better than *he*,
You write as well as *he*,
She is wiser than *he*,

C'est *lui* qui agit.
Elle le sait mieux que *lui*.
Vous écrivez aussi bien que *lui*.
Elle est plus sage que *lui*.

We come to *him*,
They speak of *him*,
It is for *him*,

Nous venons à *lui*.
Ils parlent de *lui*.
C'est pour *lui*.

They strike *him*,
James has stricken *him*,

Ils *le* frappent.
Jacques *l'*a frappé.

Now mind; the three last examples all but one, in paragraph 295, and also in 297, are here omitted; because, in the *third person* you cannot use the *le* instead of the *lui*, if there be a preposition before the English pronoun, expressed or understood. Therefore you must translate those three examples as follows:

I give *him* some paper,
They speak *to him*,
It is agreeable *to him*,

Je *lui* donne du papier.
Ils *lui* parlent.
Il *lui* est agréable.

Compare these with the three last examples but one in paragraph 297, and you will see the difference in a moment. But now, before we quit the *Singular Number*, we must speak of the *Genders*. The feminine gender is, SHE—ELLE. Then, our *she* becomes, in the other cases, *her*, while the French *elle* becomes, in the objective, *la*, and sometimes *lui*, and sometimes *elle*, besides. This appears to be very confused; but the confusion is worn away by attention. *She* is answered by *elle*, and *her* is answered by *la*, just in the same manner that *he* and *him*, in the masculine, are answered by *il* and *le*.

She strikes often,
She drinks wine,
 They strike *her*,

Elle frappe souvent.
Elle boit du vin.
 Ils *la* frappent.

But, observe (look at the table in paragraph 91), there is in the objective case *elle* as well as *lui*. This is the use of that *elle*: it is to be used when there is a preposition before the pronoun; and when there is not, *lui* is to be used, for example, speaking of a woman, we say:

C'est à *elle* que je parle,
 Et je *lui* parlerai encore,

It is to *her* that I speak.
 And I will speak to *her* still.

The only difference is this, that, if it had been a *masculine*, I must have had à *lui* in the first line. Now, as to the *neuter gender*, there is none in the French. They know nothing at all of it. Our *it*, therefore, as a personal pronoun, has nothing to answer it in French, except masculine and feminine pronouns. So that what we have to do is this: consider what is the gender of the French noun which answers to the English noun which our *it* represents; as, put my *knife* in your *pocket*; but take care, for *it* is pointed, and as

to your *pocket*, *it* is not very good. Here are two nouns and two *its*. The first noun is masculine, the second feminine. The French pronouns must, therefore, correspond with them; as, mettez *mon* couteau dans votre poche; mais prenez garde, car *il* est pointu; et, quant à votre poche, *elle* n'est pas très bonne. The *lui*, the *à elle*, and, in short, all the parts of the *il* or *elle*, when they answer to our *it*, are used precisely in the same way as when they answer to our *he* or *she*.

299. *Plural Number.* I now come to the plurals of the same pronouns that I have just been treating of in the singular. Look at the table in the latter part of paragraph 91. Examine that table well; compare it with the table of singulars in the same paragraph; and then come on with me.

300. The *first person plural* is WE—NOUS. Our *we* becomes, in the other cases (see the table), *us*; but the French pronoun of this person and number never changes its form; and *nous* answers to our *us* as well as to our *we*. A few of the examples that we took for the singular number will suffice.

We drink wine,
It is *we* who act,
He knows it better than *we*,
She is wiser than *we*,
He comes to *us*,
Give *us* some paper,
James strikes *us*,

Nous buvons du vin.
C'est *nous* qui agissons.
Il le sait mieux que *nous*.
Elle est plus sage que *nous*.
Il vient à *nous*.
Donnez-*nous* du papier.
Jacques *nous* frappe.

This is very plain. Our *we* and our *us* are always expressed in French by *nous*, which takes the pronoun before it, or the verb, just in the same manner that *moi* does.

301. The *second person plural*, is, YOU—VOUS. We have just seen that *nous* is both nominative and

objective; that, in short, it answers for all cases. The same is to be said of *vous*; and, here, our pronoun is unchangeable too; for *you* is the same in the objective that it is in the nominative; for I say, *you* strike me, and I strike *you*. A few examples will be sufficient; nearly the same that we took last.

You drink wine,
It is *you* who act,
He knows it better than *you*,
She is wiser than *you*,
He comes to *you*,
James strikes *you*,
They talk to *you*,
You cut bread,

Vous buvez du vin.
C'est *vous* qui agissez.
Il le sait mieux que *vous*.
Elle est plus sage que *vous*.
Il vient à *vous*.
Jacques *vous* frappe.
Ils *vous* parlent.
Vous coupez du pain.

As in the case of *nous*, this pronoun *vous* takes the preposition before it, and also the verb, like *moi* or *toi*; but it does not, like the pronoun of the second person singular, change its form; it always remains *vous*.

302. The *third person plural* is, **THEY—ILS**. Here the gender comes in again; but, in English, there is no change in the third person plural of the pronouns to denote gender. We always say *they*, whether we speak of *men*, *women*, or *trees*. But the French change the form of the pronoun, in this person, to express gender. Let us first take the masculine *ils*, which answers to our *they*; as, *ils* boivent, they drink. Our *they* becomes, in the other cases, *them*, and this *them* is rendered in French by *les*, *eux*, or *leur*. Besides this, our *they* is sometimes rendered by *eux*. The thing to know, then, is, when our *they* is to be *ils*, and when *eux*, and when our *them* is to be *les*, when *leur*, and when *eux*. As to the first, our *they* is to be *ils* when, in French, there is no preposition and no verb before the pronoun, and when our *they* has no conjunction

before it in the English, with a verb understood to follow. It is the same as in the case of *il* and *lui*, and will be explained by the same examples.

<i>They</i> strike often,	<i>Ils</i> frappent souvent.
<i>They</i> drink wine,	<i>Ils</i> boivent du vin.
It is <i>they</i> who act,	C'est <i>eux</i> qui agissent.
She is wiser than <i>th</i>	Elle est plus sage qu' <i>eux</i> .

Now, as to our *them*. It is to be *les* when it is the object of an action; it is to be *eux* when a preposition is used before it; it is to be *leur* when the verb, used with it, leaves *à* (to) to be understood; as:

James strikes <i>them</i> ,	Jacques <i>les</i> frappe.
She talks of <i>them</i> ,	Elle parle d' <i>eux</i> .
I give <i>them</i> some paper,	Je <i>leur</i> donne du papier.

But I must now mention what I until now omitted, to avoid confusion. By looking at the table last mentioned, you see, in the *nominative* case, *ils* or *eux*, to answer to our *they*, in the masculine. Now this *eux*, used thus, appears very strange. But it may be used thus, and so may *lui*. The feminine differs only from the masculine in this; that, in the *nominative*, our *they* is answered by *elles* instead of *ils*, and, in all the cases where *eux* is made use of in the masculine, *elles* is made use of in the feminine; and here are the examples to show it.

<i>They</i> strike often,	<i>Elles</i> frappent souvent.
<i>They</i> drink wine,	<i>Elles</i> boivent du vin.
It is <i>they</i> who act,	C'est <i>elles</i> qui agissent.
He is wiser than <i>they</i> ,	Il est plus sage qu' <i>elles</i> .
James strikes <i>them</i> ,	Jacques <i>les</i> frappe.
She talks of <i>them</i> ,	Elle parle d' <i>elles</i> .
I gave <i>them</i> some paper,	Je <i>leur</i> donne du papier.

After what has just been said, at the close of paragraph 298, it would be useless to make any further remarks on our *neuter gender*. *They* and *them*, when

they relate to neutral nouns, are to be dealt with in the same manner as directed for our *it*.

303. There now remains, with regard to these personal pronouns, the instructions as to the manner of placing *them* in the sentence, which is very different from our manner; but which is, with a little attention, very soon learned. The *je, nous, tu, vous, il, elle, ils, elles*, take the lead in the sentence, when they are the actors, in the same way that our *I, we, thou, you, he, she*, and *they* do; as, *je bois du vin, nous frappons à la porte*; I drink wine, we knock at the door. But we, in English, very frequently put other words between the pronoun and verb; as, I *very often* drink wine, we *every day* knock at the door. This must not be in French. The nominative case of the pronoun must not be separated from the verb. You must not say, *je très souvent bois du vin*; but must place the words thus:

I very often drink wine,		Je bois du vin très souvent.
We every day knock at the door,		Nous frappons à la porte tous les jours.

304. When there is a pronoun that is the object of the action, it comes before the verb, and not after it, as in English. We say, James strikes *me*; but, in French, you must say, Jacques *me* frappe; that is to say, James *me* strikes. When the verb is in the imperative mode, indeed, the pronoun comes last; as, *frappez-le*. But the cause of this is obvious. The general turn of the French language brings the pronoun, *when it is the object*, immediately before the verb; as, *je le pense, il le dit, nous le jurons*; I think *it*, he says *it*, we swear *it*; or, word for word: I *it* think, he *it* says, we *it* swear.

305. These are the principal things to attend to in

the personal pronouns. I shall now give you an Exercise on the subject. There are other things to notice by-and-by, connected with these pronouns, and especially the manner of placing them in *negative* and *interrogative* sentences: but, for the present, we have enough of them; and will proceed to our *Exercise*, which will contain an instance or two of nearly all the kinds of phrases that are necessary to our present purpose. The phrases are placed promiscuously; that is to say, not in the order of the rules which they are intended to illustrate.

EXERCISE V.

1. You and I are going to supper.
2. You and your sister and I shall have some money to-morrow.
3. She and I are very happy in this country.
4. They strike me as well as him.
5. They love me as well as her.
6. May you become rich.
7. Were you to abandon me for ever.
8. Yes, answered he. No, said he.
9. I see him and his father every day.
10. He always gives them something to eat.
11. They very frequently dine at our house.
12. Do that, I pray you, for my sake.
13. The horse is mine, and the cow is hers.
14. Give me some of the wood that you have.
15. He tells them all that I say to him.
16. She had not any love for them.
17. The fields belong to them.
18. It is he that they always speak to.
19. They look for them here to-day.

20. Give her something to eat and drink.
21. I will send you some flowers: they are very fine.
22. They have sent us some fruit to-day.
23. They rob and insult us.
24. He writes and sends messengers to the Secretary.
25. They are richer than I and than he also.
26. Send a messenger to them.
27. Seize him, bind him, and put him in prison.
28. We eat meat, and drink water.
29. They often come to us to get wine.
30. I gave him gold for you.
31. You saw them go to her.

306. *Second Class*: POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

—See them in their table in paragraph 94. In these there are *no cases* to attend to. There are only the *Number*, the *Person*, and the *Gender*. Read paragraph 94 all through; and you will need nothing here but a brief Exercise.

307. But, in paragraph 95 there is another table of possessive pronouns. Those also are so fully spoken of in that paragraph, that little more than the exercise is required here. The main thing in both these is, to attend to the agreement in number and gender. This agreement must be perfect. Read with great care the two paragraphs just mentioned.

308. There is one remark to make, and this you must particularly attend to. We, in speaking of harm done to, or pain suffered in, our members, or bodies, make use of the possessive pronoun; as, *my* head aches, *my* finger smarts. The French, in these cases, use the *article*, thus: *j'ai mal à la tête*; *j'ai mal au doigt*. He hurts *my* arm; *il me fait mal au bras*. The pronoun

may sometimes be used; but this that I have been describing here is the French idiom.

309. Observe that here, as in the case of the articles, when the noun begins with a *vowel* or an *h* mute, the singular masculine pronoun is put before it, be it of whichever gender it may; as, *mon ami*, *mon amie*, though one be masculine and the other feminine. The same is to be observed with regard to *ton* and *son*.

EXERCISE VI.

1. My hand, my pens, my paper, my ink, and my books.
2. Your pens are not so good as mine.
3. Take the chairs from my room and put them in his.
4. Take them from their room and put them in mine.
5. Take them from mine and carry them to hers.
6. Their oxen are finer than yours.
7. Put my oxen into their field.
8. His shoes are better than hers.
9. Our coats are blue, but theirs are red.
10. Our field, their meadow, their sheep.
11. Your trees are well planted.
12. The table is bad: its legs are weak.
13. That coach is yours: this is mine.
14. Brother, I beg you to come to my house.
15. Adieu, captain. I am glad to see you, neighbour.
16. These are my birds, and those are yours.
17. Thy father and mother and brothers are dead.
18. His brothers and sisters are all gone away.
19. Their servants are coming here.

20. Father, have you seen her cloak?
21. Come to me, sister, I want to speak to you.
22. No, friend, I cannot aid you.
23. Take your sheep and put them to mine.
24. Take your hens from mine.
25. His house, her house, our house, their house,
your house.
26. His hand, her arm, our fingers, their legs, my
feet.
27. Her gown, her cap, her head, her neck, her
teeth.
28. Put your hay to mine: take yours from mine.
29. He does not talk of your beauty, but of mine.
30. They do not talk of hers, but of ours.

310. *Third Class*: RELATIVE PRONOUNS.—

Look at the table in paragraph 96. You see that there are but few of these; but they require attention. Our *who* is answered by *qui*, except when a question is asked, and then it may be by *quel* or *quelle* followed by the noun or by a pronoun; as, *quels* sont ces hommes-là? Who are those men? But in all other cases our *who* is answered by *qui*; as:

l'homme *qui* vient de sortir, | the man *who* is just gone out.

311. As our *that* may be, in some cases, used instead of *who*; as it may, indeed, in the instance just given; so it is, in these cases, translated by *qui*. *That*, however, can be rendered by *qui* only when the person or thing to which it relates is not the object of a verb coming after the relative. Take examples:

l'homme <i>qui</i> vient de partir,	the man <i>that</i> (or <i>who</i>) is just gone away.
le cheval <i>qui</i> mange l'herbe,	the horse <i>that</i> eats the grass.
le foin <i>qui</i> est pour le cheval,	the hay <i>that</i> is for the horse.

But when there is such a verb in the sentence, the relative pronoun in French, to express our *that* or our *whom*, must be *que*. As:

l'homme <i>que</i> j'ai vu partir,	the man <i>that</i> (or <i>whom</i>) I have seen go away.
le cheval <i>que</i> vous montez,	the horse <i>that</i> you ride.
le foin <i>que</i> nous donnons aux chevaux,	the hay <i>that</i> we give to horses.

And here you will observe, also, in the first three of these examples with *qui*, that though we cannot with propriety use *who* as the relative to the names of things inanimate or irrational, the French use *qui* with such names, if its antecedents be in the nominative.—*Que* is abbreviated before a vowel, but *qui* never is. Remark this: le cheval *qui* a vu mon domestique; that is, the horse which has seen my servant; but, le cheval *qu'a* vu mon domestique, means, the horse which my servant has seen.

312. Our *whose* is answered by *de qui*, or *dont*: but *de qui* is confined to rational animals, like our *whose* and *whom*. *Dont* is used for all sorts of objects, except when a question is asked; and then it must be *de qui*, or *duquel*, or *de laquelle*, according to the number and gender of the antecedent.

313. Our *whom*, as already shown in paragraph 311, is answered by *que*; as, l'homme *que* vous voyez; the man *whom* you see. But if there be a preposition, our *whom* is rendered by *qui* or *lequel*; as, the man *to whom* I have sent; l'homme *à qui* or *auquel*, j'ai envoyé.

314. Our *which* is answered by *qui*, as our *that* is, as we have seen in paragraph 311. And here again the same rule as that given in paragraph 311 is to be followed; that is, when to translate *which* by *qui*, and

when by *que*. Our *which* would apply in all the four examples, *the horse, the hay*, while the French *qui* applies to the first couple, and the *que* to the second couple of those examples, just as in translating our *that*. So in the following:

le bœuf <i>qui</i> laboure la terre,		the ox <i>which</i> ploughs the land.
le bœuf <i>que</i> je vous ai vendu,		the ox <i>which</i> I have sold you.

Our *which* is sometimes answered by *lequel*; and this pronoun takes the article with it, as you see in paragraph 97. Indeed, here is the *le* in this word, which means *the which*, being used as a relative to a singular masculine. If it were a feminine, it must have been *laquelle*; if a plural masculine, *lesquels*; and so on. And, as with *whom*, mentioned in paragraph 313, so with *which* when there is a preposition. As:

C'est le cheval <i>duquel</i> , or <i>dont</i> ,	It is the horse of <i>which</i> he has
il vous a parlé,	spoken to you.
La mort est un mal <i>auquel</i> il	Death is an evil <i>for which</i> there
n'y a point de remède,	is no remedy.

Observe, that the French word *où*, which means *where*, is frequently used, and very frequently too, to supply the place of *dans lequel* (in which), *dans laquelle*, and so on; as, *l'état où je suis*; the state *in which* (where) I am.

315. Our *what* is answered by *quoi*, *que*, or *quel*. But the former is not used (as a relative) in speaking of persons, and is most frequently used with a preposition; as, *de quoi*, *à quoi*; which means *of what*, *to what*. But our *what* is also frequently answered by *que*; as, *que voulez-vous?* *What* would you have? *Que dites-vous?* *What* do you say? Our *what* is answered by *quel*, when questions are asked with a noun; as, *What house is that?* *Quelle maison est celle-là?*

316. You must take care, in using *relative pronouns*, to keep their ANTECEDENTS constantly in your eye. In my ENGLISH GRAMMAR (paragraph 245), I have contended, that the relative pronouns *never can be the nominatives of Verbs*. I will quote the passage: for it serves most admirably to illustrate what I am about to say with respect to the functions of the *French relative pronouns*:—"In looking for the nominative of a sentence, take care that the *relative pronoun* be not a stumbling-block; for relatives have no changes to denote *number* or *person*; and, though they may sometimes appear to be, of themselves, nominatives, they never can be such. *The men WHO ARE here: the man WHO IS here: the cocks THAT crow: the cock THAT crows*. Now, if the relative be the nominative, why do the verbs *change*, seeing that here is no change in the relative? No; the verb, in pursuit of its nominative, runs through the relatives to come at their antecedents, men, man, cocks, cock. BISHOP LOWTH says, however, that '*the relative is the nominative when no other nominative comes between it and the verb*;' and MR. MURRAY has very faithfully copied this erroneous observation. *Who is* in the house? *Who are* in the house? *Who strikes* the iron? *Who was* in the street? *Who were* in the street? Now here is, in all these instances, no other nominative between the relative and the verb, and yet the verb is continually varying. Why does it vary? Because it disregards the relative, and goes and finds the antecedent, and accommodates its number to that antecedent. The antecedents are, in these instances, understood: What *person is* in the house? What *persons are* in the house? What *person strikes* the

“ iron ? What *persons* strike the iron ? What *person*
 “ *was* in the street ? What *persons were* in the street ?
 “ The Bishop seems to have had a misgiving in his
 “ mind when he gave this account of the nominative
 “ functions *of the relative* ; for he adds, ‘ *the relative is*
 “ ‘ *of the SAME NUMBER and PERSON as the antecedent* ;
 “ ‘ *and the verb AGREES WITH IT accordingly.*’ Oh, oh !
 “ But the relative is *always the same*, and is of *any*
 “ and of *every number and person*. How, then, can
 “ the verb, when it makes *its changes* in number and
 “ person, be said to *agree* with the relative ? Disagree,
 “ indeed, with the relative the verb cannot, any more
 “ than it can with a preposition, for the relative has,
 “ like the preposition, no changes to denote cases ; but,
 “ the danger is, that, in certain instances, the relative
 “ may be *taken for a nominative*, without your looking
 “ after the antecedent, which is the real nominative,
 “ and that, thus, not having the number and person of
 “ the antecedent clearly in your mind, you may give
 “ to the verb a wrong number or person.” Now, then,
 let us see how this matter is in French. MONSIEUR
 RESTAUT, in his rules respecting the *relative pronoun*,
 tells us, that the verbs and adjectives are to be some-
 times in the plural, and sometimes in the singular,
 after *qui* (who), and that the adjective, or participle, is
 affected in the same way. He has these two examples :

Cicéron fut un de ceux qui furent sacrifiés à la vengeance des Triumvirs.

Hégésiochus fut un de ceux qui travailla le plus efficacement à la ruine de sa patrie.

What ! Here is the phrase, *fut un de ceux qui* (was one of those who) in both cases ; and yet, in one case, the verb (*furent*) is in the *plural* ; and, in the other

case, the verb (*travaille*) is in the *singular*. How, then, can the *qui* be the *nominative* of these verbs? It is clearly the nominative in neither instance. Well, but what are the antecedents? Is the pronoun CEUX the antecedent in the first case? It must be so; and thus we should have it in English:

Cicero was one of THOSE, who were sacrificed to the vengeance of the Triumvirs.

But, then, where is the antecedent in the second instance? MONSIEUR RESTAUT says, that UN is the antecedent here. Why? For what? There is no *reason* at all. MONSIEUR RESTAUT says that *qui* is sometimes *in the plural* and sometimes in the singular. Strange remark! and that, too, from a very clever man. But let us have another instance. MONSIEUR RESTAUT gives his scholar this sentence: "CTÉSIAS est UN des premiers QUI AIT exécuté cette entreprise." Now, mark his *reasons*, which I shall give in English. "The verb is here put in the singular, because its nominative, *qui*, is a relative pronoun *in the singular*, and has for antecedent the word *un*. When we say,

"CTÉSIAS est un des premiers qui AIT exécuté cette entreprise,
"we mean not only that nobody had executed it *before*
"him, but, moreover, that he executed it *before all*
"others, and that he set them the *example*. But when,
"on the contrary, we say,

"CTÉSIAS est un des premiers qui AIENT exécuté cette entreprise,
"we mean, that *several persons executed the enterprise*
"at the outset, and that CTÉSIAS was *one of them*."——

Very good, MONSIEUR RESTAUT. But then, pray, why do you call the *qui* the nominative of the verb? You

prove as clearly as day-light that UN is the nominative in the first example, and that DES PREMIERS is the nominative in the second; you make the verbs agree with these nominatives in number, and yet you persist in calling the *qui* the nominative! And, in order to give a show of reason for this, you say, that *qui* is in the *singular* in the first example, and in the *plural* in the second, though it *never changes its form*.

—Therefore, mind, my dear son, the thing for us to attend to here is this: that we are never to look upon *qui* as the *nominative* of the verb. We must look for the *antecedent*; and, according to *that*, make the number and person of our verb. Les soldats *qui marchent*, and le soldat *qui marche*; but, if we were to look upon *qui* as the nominative, why should it be *marchent* in one case, and *marche* in the other? The principle applies to both languages; but the truth of it is most clearly seen in the French, because in it the verb makes such conspicuous changes in its form to agree in number with its nominative case.

[NOTE.—The examples here above given are applicable also to the part of Syntax which relates to the *Number of the Verb*. See *Note* at the end of paragraph 385, where reference is made back to this place.]

EXERCISE VII.

1. The people who live in that street.
2. The carpenter who made my table.
3. The cow which feeds in my meadow.
4. The sheep that are on the hills.
5. The man whose friendship I value.
6. The horse that goes in their coach.

7. The wheat that you sold at the market.
8. The wheat that grows in your fields.
9. Love those from whom you receive kindness.
10. The merchant to whom he owes so much money.
11. The company whom he has received to-night.
12. The bird which has seen the bird-catcher.
13. The bird which the bird-catcher has seen.
14. The age in which we live.
15. The gentleman to whom it belongs.
16. The country which I like best.
17. The weather which pleases me the most.
18. The ink that I made use of.
19. The people whom you spoke of yesterday.
20. The man whom I most dislike.
21. What do you want with us?
22. What do they say to you and your family?
23. That is the business which they spoke of.
24. It is you and your son that they are talking of.
25. There are the ladies whom he was speaking of.
26. The gentleman from whom I received so much kindness.
27. Whom are you speaking of?
28. What man is that? What boy is that?
29. Which of the two chairs do you like best?
30. Which of the three looking-glasses do you like best?
31. The trouble from which he has escaped.
32. My friend, who died yesterday, and whom I loved so well.
33. What do you talk of? What is that?
34. What gentleman is that?
35. With what fleet did he come?
36. Who has told you that?

37. One of those who came last night.
 38. One of the first who did it.
 39. The hawk that my brother has shot.
 40. Who can tell what may happen?

317. *Fourth Class*: DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.—Look now at paragraph 98. Attend to the whole of it, and particularly to the *table*. You see here a great variety of words to answer to our *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*. You see *he* and *she* in the table. That is because the French make use of these pronouns sometimes to supply the place of these two personal pronouns. In fact, the *celui* is the *lui** (he or him) with the *ce* (this) prefixed to it; and the *celle* is the *elle* (she or her) with the *ce* (dropping the *e*) prefixed to it. The same may be said of *ceux*, which is *eux* (they or them) with the *ce* (dropping the *e*) prefixed to it. So that, if we were to put these words into English literally, CELUI would be *this he*; CELLE would be *this she*; CEUX would be *this they* masculine; and CELLES would be *this they* feminine. The CECI and CELA are *this here* and *this there*. CELUI-CI is *this he here*; and CELUI-LÀ, is *this he there*. The same explanation holds good as to CELLE-CI, CELLE-LÀ, CEUX-CI, and CEUX-LÀ, CELLES-CI, and CELLES-LÀ. *Ci* and *là* are adverbs, meaning *here* and *there*.

318. The original word is, as we have seen, *CE* (this); which is *CET* before a vowel, *CETTE* for the feminine, and *CES* for the plural of both genders. This is all that there is of the word itself; all the rest is personal pronoun and adverb. The *ce* is greatly used with the verb *to be*, *être*, instead of the personal pronoun *il*; as, *c'est une bonne chose, que de se lever de bonne heure*: IT IS a good thing to rise early. It is a

softer expression than *il est*, and it is a great favourite with the French.

319. These pronouns are, or, rather, this pronoun is, called *Demonstrative*, because it is used to *point out* the noun in a direct manner; almost to *show* it; as, *this* house, *that* field, *these* oxen, *those* fowls. When we use these words, we seem to be almost pointing with our finger at the house, the field, the oxen, and the fowls. To *demonstrate* means to show in the clearest manner; and, therefore, these are called *Demonstrative pronouns*; or, rather, this is called a demonstrative pronoun; for, as I have shown, there is, in fact, only the pronoun *ce*, all the rest being the same word under different forms. Nor have we but one word of this kind; namely, *this*. The other three demonstratives are only so many changes in the form of *this*. The first change is *that*, the next is *these*, and the third *those*. These changes are to express *situation* and *number*. The French, in addition to situation and number, express *gender*, which, in this case, we do not. We say, *this* boy, *this* girl, *this* hat, *this* pen; but they say, *ce* garçon, *cette* fille, *ce* chapeau, *cette* plume. In the plural they have *ces* for both genders; but this answers to our *these* and *those* only in part; only when there is a noun coming directly after it; as, *ces* garçons, *ces* filles; and then there must generally be *ci*, or *là*, after the noun; as, *ces* garçons-ci, *these* boys; *ces* filles-là, *those* girls.

320. Our *those* is frequently used indifferently with the personal pronoun *they*; but when this can be done in English, the French requires the demonstrative; as:

<i>They</i> who are wise,	} <i>Ceux</i> qui sont sages.
<i>Those</i> who are wise,	

In the singular number, we cannot, in English, use the demonstrative in this way. We cannot say, speaking of a man :

This who is very tall.
That who is very rich.

We must use the personal pronoun, thus :

He who is very tall.
He who is very rich.

Then, in speaking of a woman, we must say,

She who is very tall.
She who is very rich.

But, in French, the demonstrative is used in all these cases; *celui* in the first four instances, and *celle* in the two last.

321. But, the main thing in regard to these demonstratives, the great difference in the two languages, and great object for you to attend to, is, the use of *ce* with the verb *être*; in which use it generally answers to our *it*, but sometimes to our *he* or *she*. The use of *ce*, in this way, is of endless occurrence. We say,

It is a good thing.
 He is a good man.
 She is a very handsome girl.

In all these cases the French say, *c'est une bonne chose*, *c'est un brave homme*, and so on. The *ce* means *this*, but no matter: the French language chooses to say, *this* is a good thing, and not, *it* is a good thing. But mind, in certain cases you have no choice: for, when we, in English, use *it* with the verb *to be* followed by a noun or a pronoun, thus, *it* is I who see the enemy; when we, in English, have a phrase of this sort, we must, in French, employ *ce*, and not *il*. We cannot

say, *il est moi qui vois l'ennemi*. We must say, *c'est moi*. In all such phrases, *it* was I, *it* is you, *it* was we, *it* was the people, and the like, you must use *ce* for our *it*; as, *c'était moi, c'est vous*, and so on, always with *ce*, and not with *il*. How the *verb* is to be managed in these cases you will see when you come to the *impersonal verbs*. At present we have to do with the pronouns; and particularly with the use of *cè* for our *it*. Having now, I think, pretty well explained the nature and offices of these pronouns, I shall give you an Exercise on them.

EXERCISE VIII.

1. There is a great deal of fruit in that country.
2. This garden is very full of flowers.
3. Which of these flowers do you like best ?
4. Do you like this best, or that ?
5. It is I who order you to do it.
6. It is the master of the house who is coming.
7. It is a very fine country.
8. It is a great pity.
9. This pen is better than that.
10. These pens are as good as those.
11. This corn is cheap, but it is not good.
12. Your land is as good as that of your neighbour.
13. Those who think that they gain by roguery deceive themselves.
14. He who goes to bed late must get up late.
15. She who thinks too much of her beauty.
16. He who lives a sober life is more happy than he who does not.
17. He does not know how fine this country is who has not seen it.

18. That which you have sent I like well.
19. He tells us what he knows of them.
20. She tells her mother all that she hears.
21. What vexes me most is, he will not see me.
22. Those only speak ill of him who do not know him.
23. They do not know what hunger is who have
always had an abundance.
24. These are the oxen that I like best.
25. Those that you have are but poor animals.
26. That dog appears to be of the same kind as this.
27. Yes; but this is better than that.
28. This bird sings better than that which you have.
29. These partridges are bigger than the English ones.
30. These woodcocks fly swifter than those.
31. Which of them are best to eat? .
32. Those that fly swiftly, or those that fly slowly?

322. *Fifth Class*: INDETERMINATE PRONOUNS.—Now go back to paragraph 99. Read that paragraph, and also paragraph 100, very attentively; and examine well the list of indeterminate pronouns in paragraph 99. First of all, after you have looked well at this list, observe this; that, though there are certain English words placed opposite the French words, and though, in some cases, the latter answer to the former, they *do not always do it*. It is not this table alone, therefore, that will teach you how to use these French words, and especially the *five last*, which, though called *indeterminate* words, are really amongst the most important in the language. When the scholar sees *of it, of him, of her, of them*, and nothing but the French *en* placed opposite them; when he sees that this one little word is to answer to all these different

phrases, the difficulty seems insurmountable. At the end, however, of a few days' attentive study, the difficulty disappears; and, before the end of an *hour*, you will, I trust, perceive it begin to disappear.

323. ALL—TOUT, which, as you see, becomes *tous*, *toute*, and *toutes*. This word answers, in this sense, to our ALL. This *all*, you will bear in mind, is not a *pronoun* in all cases. It is not one in this very phrase, "*all cases*." It is an *adjective*. It is a pronoun only when it stands for a noun: and, it is quite clear to me, that it ought never to be called a pronoun, seeing that I know of no case where a noun is not understood when *all* is used.

324. BOTH—L'UN ET L'AUTRE. The French have no single word to answer to our *both*. They are obliged to say, *the one and the other*; and this phrase changes, you see, according to number and gender. There can, however, be no difficulty here; and the same may be said of *either*, *neither*, and *one another*. The first is *l'un ou l'autre* (the one or the other); the next, *ni l'un ni l'autre* (neither the one nor the other); and the last is, *l'un l'autre* (the one the other); which last phrase is, you will find, if you look well into it, just as consonant with *reason* as our *one another*. It is now, I hope, unnecessary for me to dwell on the changes to be made here on account of *number* and *gender*. These must, by this time, have become as familiar to you as the use of your eyes or teeth.

325. SOMEBODY, or SOME ONE—QUELQU'UN. EVERYBODY, EACH, EVERY ONE—CHACUN. These apply to things as well as persons in French; though where *body* is used they do not so apply in English. CHACUN has gender, you see; but no change to denote a

difference in number. However, these things are so little embarrassing, that a very few instances in the Exercises will be sufficient to make them clear to you.

326. NOBODY, NONE—AUCUN, NUL, NULLE. In the French all these three pronouns apply to things as well as to persons. They admit of no changes except those you see in the table.

327. ANYBODY—QUICONQUE, is of both genders, and never used but in the singular number. *Whoever* is also translated by *quiconque*, as well as by *qui que ce soit*. *Whatever* is translated by *quoi que ce soit*, *quoi que*, *quelconque*, *quel que*, and *quelque*.

[NOTE.—*Quel que* is written in two words when followed by a verb, and is then a kind of adjective, which must agree in gender and number with the noun to which it refers; as, *quel que soit son âge*; *quels que soient ses desseins*.—*Quelque*, before a noun, whether accompanied by an adjective or not, takes an *s* for the plural; as, *quelques bonnes plumes que vous ayez*. *Quelque*, in the sense of *however*, never changes its form.]

328. NOBODY—PERSONNE. This is a word much in use. It is written like the feminine noun *personne* (person); but it is a negative pronoun, meaning *nobody*, or *no one*; and it is wholly unchangeable in its form. PLUSIEURS (many) and RIEN (nothing), the first being always plural and the last always singular, merit no particular remark. They experience no changes in their form, and have, in all cases, the same meaning.

329. Very different is it with the remaining five pronouns, which, as before observed, are amongst the most important words in the French language. I

shall devote one paragraph to each of them, and, in order to obviate confusion and to make reference easy, no more than one paragraph.

330. LE This is, you know, the definite article, *the*; it is also the personal pronoun, *him*; it is the personal pronoun *it*; as:

Le pommier porte beaucoup de fruit,

Je *le* taille tous les ans,

C'est mon domestique: je *le* maintiens,

The apple-tree bears a good deal of fruit.

I prune *it* every year.

He is my servant: I support *him*.

Thus, then, we have this same LE acting in three capacities. But we are now to view it in its fourth capacity, in which we shall, agreeably to the table in paragraph 99, find it sometimes answering to *so*, or *such*, sometimes to *it*, and sometimes supplying the place of great part of a sentence. Let us take an instance of each:

Vous êtes *laborieux*, et il ne l'est pas.

Je crois qu'il *va venir*; du moins je *le* désire.

Êtes-vous *le propriétaire* de cette maison? Oui, je *le* suis.

In the first of these instances, we should put *so*; in the second *it*; in the third *nothing*, or we should nearly repeat all the words of the question, and say, *yes, I am the proprietor of it*. So that this little word performs a great deal. It makes the sense precise and clear without repetition and a great mass of words. Perhaps, however, if we look well into the matter, we might, without any very great violence done to our language, translate this *le* by our *it*. Let us take the three examples just given:

You are industrious, and he is not *it*.

I believe that he is coming; at least I wish *it*.

Are you the proprietor of that house? Yes, I am *it*.

We have now done with this *LE*, till we come to the *interrogatives* and *negatives*, where we shall find it a great actor. .

331. *EN*. This word, the table says, answers to our *of-it, of him, of her, of them*. But it answers, perhaps, to a great deal more than all these. It is a word of most extensive use. It is always in the objective case, and it never changes its form. Its use is *to save repetition*. This is, indeed, the office of all pronouns; but *en* applies in so many ways, that it would fill a volume to describe minutely all its functions. You must bear in mind, that *EN* is sometimes a preposition; and that, then, it means *in*. However, that is wholly a different word, though containing the same letters. *EN*, pronoun, may have relation to, or may stand for, a noun of either gender, or either number. It is always preceded by some noun, expressed or understood; and it is made use of to save the repeating of that noun, or the employing of many words, which are rendered unnecessary by employing it. A few examples will give you an idea of its use:

1. *Savez-vous où il y a des choux?* Oui; il y *en* a dans mon jardin.
2. *Avez-vous parlé de la fille?* Oui; j'*en* ai parlé.
3. *Voulez-vous des noix?* Oui; j'*en* veux.
4. *Tenez-vous des chiens?* J'*en* tiens plusieurs.
5. *Combien de moutons avez-vous?* J'*en* ai trois cents.
6. Il a vendu du sucre; mais il *en* a encore.
7. Ils avaient des fleurs, et ils *en* ont encore de très-belles.
8. Voici de belles pêches: *en* voulez-vous?

Now let us make, as nearly as possible, a word-for-word translation of these sentences:

1. Know you where there are cabbages? Yes; there are *of them* in my garden.
2. Have you spoken of the girl? Yes; I *of her* have spoken.
3. Wish you to have some walnuts? Yes; I *of them* wish to have.

- 4 Keep you dogs? I *of them* keep several.
5. How many sheep have you? I *of them* have three hundred.
6. He has sold some sugar; but he *of it* has yet.
7. They had flowers, and they *of them* have yet very fine.
8. See, here are fine peaches: *of them* do you wish to have?

You see, then, what an important word this is: and yet, till you come to *interrogatives* and *negatives*, you see but a part of its importance. Besides its applicability to all persons and things, it applies to *place*, and stands for, *from this*, *from that*, or *from this place*, or *that place*; as:

Il *en* vient,
Je m'*en* vais,
Allez-vous-*en*,

He comes, or is come, *from that place*.
I am going *away*.
Go *hence*; or, go *away*.

In all these cases the *en* is a pronoun, though translated by a noun or an adverb. If the translation were strictly literal, it would stand thus: he *from it* comes; I *from it* go; go you *from it*; or, at least, *from that* and *from this* (place). Always look well into these *literal meanings*; for, by doing that, you get at the *reason* for the thing being thus, or thus; and, mind, it is not really learning to do a thing, unless you get at the reason for doing it.

332. Y. This is a word of the same character, and of nearly as much importance as the last. In the table (which look at very often) Y is exhibited as answering to our *to it*, *to him*, *to her*, *to them*, in the same sort of way that EN answers to the same pronouns with *of* or *from* before them. But Y, like *en*, does more than the table promises; for, it answers to *at it*, *in it*, *at*, or, *in*, *that place*; and, in short, to many other phrases. Y, like *en*, is confined to neither gender and to neither number. It is made to relate to persons as well as things; and, like *en*, it never changes its form.

In short, it performs the same functions as *en*, or very nearly the same, only the nouns or pronouns which it represents have *to*, *at*, *in* or *by* before them, instead of *of* or *from*. Let us, as before, take a few instances:

1. Il apprendra le François, parce qu'il s'y applique.
2. Avez-vous mis le miroir dans la salle? Il y est.
3. Ont-ils songé à mon affaire? Oui; ils y ont songé.
4. Pensez-vous à ce pauvre homme? Oui; j'y pense.
5. Ils m'ont fait des promesses; mais je ne m'y fie pas.
6. Ils ont fait le travail; mais ils n'y gagneront rien.
7. Allez à la campagne. J'y vais.

These may suffice. Let us, as we did before, translate them as literally as possible.

1. He will learn French, because that he himself *to it* applies.
2. Have you put the looking-glass in the parlour? It *in it* is.
3. Have they thought of my business? Yes; they *to it* have thought.
4. Do you think to this poor man? Yes; I *to him* think.
5. They to me have made promises; but I *in them* confide not.
6. They have done the work; but they *by it* will gain nothing.
7. Go to the country. I am *thither* going.

Observe: the French say think *to*, and not think *of*, a thing. Now, look at the power of this letter y. Here we have *to it*, *in it*, *to him*, *in them*, *by it*, and *thither*, all expressed in French by this word y. And, observe, as *EN* is, besides its capacities as pronoun, a *preposition*, answering to our *in*; so y is, besides its capacities as pronoun, an *adverb*, answering to our *there*, or, rather, *thither*.

333. ON. I have, in the table, represented this word as answering to our *one*, *they*, *we*, and *people*. We shall find, however, that this is not all. But first, pray mind that this has nothing to do with our *number* ONE. We sometimes say, in English, "*one* thinks, *one* eats, *one* sleeps," and the like. But this is not, in fact, *English*. It is a mere imitation of the French *on*,

which has no more to do with *number* ONE than it has to do with *nine*. The French ON is best answered by our *they*, or *people*; as :

They } say, that we shall have war.
 People }
 On dit que nous aurons la guerre.

Sometimes we use *we*; and sometimes the *impersonal*; as, *it is said* that we shall have war. Indeed, *we* cannot be used in all cases: it cannot in the instance just given. It can never answer to the French ON, except in a very large and unconfined sense, meaning all mankind, or at least a whole people. The ON applies to persons only; but it applies, or by use is made to apply, to both genders and both numbers, and to all the persons, even to the first; for it is so convenient a word, that the French often make use of it instead of *je*. But, the great and regular use of it is, where we use the impersonal, or the participle with the verb to be; as:

On croit qu'il viendra,
On lui a dit de venir,

It is believed that he will come.
He has been told to come.

We do not say, *one believes* that he will come; *one has told him* to come. This is not in the character of our language. Indeed, it is shocking nonsense; because, as I said before, ON is no more translated by ONE than it is by NINE. When we, in English, speak in very general terms, we may, and we do, now and then, make use of ONE as an indeterminate pronoun, but, mind, it can be merely *for once and away*; for if we attempt to keep it up, we find that we are gabbling a sort of broken English. The ON is, you will observe, always in the *nominative* case. It is never the object in the sentence. When ON is preceded by a word

which ends with a vowel, it is written *l'on* for the sake of better sound; as, après cela *l'on* dine: after that they dine. But, if *on* be repeated in the sentence, it must be written all the way through in the same way that it is at the beginning. I will not here insert any more examples. Several relating to *ON* will be found in the next Exercise, which will of course relate to the whole of the *Indeterminate Pronouns*; of which there remains one to be attended to.

334. *SE*, which sometimes becomes *SOI*. The *se* is *self* or *selves*: and *soi* is the same word, in fact, but has generally a preposition before it. It has no other changes, and applies to the third persons of both numbers and both genders. But before you go any further, turn back to paragraph 129, where you will find my first mention of this pronoun, *SE*. You will see the principal use to which it is applied. Indeed, the paragraphs from 129 to 134 inclusive, contain all that is necessary to be said on the subject of *SE*. I was, as you will see, obliged to treat of it fully there; because, without making the use of it clearly understood, I could not make myself comprehensible with regard to the reflected verbs, of which I was compelled to treat in that place. You will, therefore, now read that part over again with great attention. You will see the part that *SE* acts in the conjugation of a verb. To this if we add a few instances of the manner of using *SOI*, we may come to our promised Exercise on *Indeterminate Pronouns*. *SOI*, when used in a general sense, answers to our *themselves*, *ourselves*, or *one's-self*; as, *people*, or *they*, like *themselves*: in French, *on s'aime soi-même*. Again, *people* like *themselves* only: *on n'aime que soi*. The French word *soi-disant* has

almost become English. It is, literally, *self-saying*, and, properly translated, it is, self-calling, or self-styling. I am now going to insert the Exercise relating to all these indeterminate pronouns. Consider well before you translate; and look back continually at your table and your rules.

EXERCISE IX.

1. Every body ought to be rewarded for his labour.
2. All men must have food and raiment.
3. Every one goes whither he likes.
4. The judges were seated, every one in his place.
5. Each of them gave his opinion on the subject.
6. Give some food to each of the two, but none to the third.
7. Every body knows that, and many say it.
8. Some say that he is going to quit his house.
9. Several have assured me that he is coming.
10. Some people like that way of travelling.
11. Some are better than others.
12. We must not take the goods of others.
13. Other people do not do that.
14. He spends other people's money.
15. They esteemed one another.
16. All is sold, and carried away from the house.
17. The sheep are all dead. What! all?
18. Whoever goes in that road will tumble.
19. Whoever neglects his business will be ruined.
20. I will maintain that against any body.
21. Give us the whole; every thing whatever.
22. He succeeds in whatever he undertakes.
23. Whatever he may say, he will not escape it.
24. Whatever may be the price, you must give it.

25. Who is the man that has stolen your money?
26. I do not know; but whoever he may be, he ought to be punished.
27. The man is caught. We do not know what he is; but whatever he may be, he shall be punished.
28. Some say that she will be very rich; others say that she will not.
29. However rich she may be; whatever riches she may have,
30. Whatever fine houses and gardens they may have;
31. They do not like one another, I assure you.
32. One or the other will come to-morrow; but neither will come to-day.
33. He has done nothing for me, and he will do nothing for you.
34. Nothing succeeds that they undertake.
35. Nobody believes that. I have told it to nobody.
36. Did any body ever see the like before?
37. Not one of his people came last night.
38. Not one of the soldiers escaped the enemy.
39. Have you any pears? Not one, upon my word.
40. Nobody is come with the fruit and the wine.
41. We do not like that others should meddle in our family-affairs.
42. People say that you are going to be married.
43. It is said that there is a great crop of wheat.
44. He has been advised to leave the country.
45. We lead a pleasant life; we rise early, we walk out, then we breakfast, and then we walk again; or perhaps we ride.
46. You may translate such phrases as this, and the

- last, in either of the two ways; that is to say, with the *on*, or with the *nous* or the *vous*.
47. Do you know that there are soldiers in the town? Yes; for I have seen many of them.
 48. What noise is that? What is the cause of it?
 49. Where are the ladies? I do not know any thing of them.
 50. What have they done with my sword? I know nothing about it.
 51. Are there many vessels in the port? Yes; there are more than a hundred.
 52. If she come from the country to-day, she will return to it to-morrow.
 53. They are praised very much; but not more than they ought to be.
 54. They are very poor, but many of their neighbours are not.
 55. Is it bread that you are eating? Yes, it is.
 56. There is my glass: put some wine in it.
 57. He has bought the estate: he has been aiming at it a long time.
 58. She is come home. She will leave it again to-morrow.
 59. They care for nobody but themselves.
 60. Pride becomes nobody. Covet not the goods of others.
 61. Nothing is good enough for him.
 62. They will go thither to her.
 63. We talked of it then.
 64. Give them some of it.
 65. Send some of it to them.
 66. They have come away quickly.
 67. He says and stands to it.

335 Thus I close the Letter on the *Syntax of Pronouns*; and now, before I go to the Syntax of the remaining Parts of Speech, I shall give you a letter on the NEGATIVES and INTERROGATIVES, and another on the IMPERSONALS. But let me pray you to take great pains about the pronouns before you quit them. They are very important words; they occur in almost every sentence. They are little words of great meaning; and if great attention be not paid to their meaning, it is useless to read them, and even to write them. You now *begin to know how to write a little French*. That is a great thing. If hard pushed, you could write a note to a Frenchman to ask him to lend you a pony. That is something gained, at any rate. You have only to persevere, and you will be able to write a letter in French to a French lady, most humbly beseeching her to honour you with her hand at a ball.

LETTER XX.

SYNTAX OF NEGATIVES AND INTERROGATIVES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

336. Words of all the Parts of Speech come into *negative* and *interrogative* phrases. The words which are called *negatives*, belong principally to that part of speech which are called *adverbs*. But it is the placing of the words which is chiefly to be attended to in negative and interrogative sentences.

337. Our principal *negatives* are *no* and *not*, the former mostly applying to nouns and pronouns, and the latter to verbs, as, I have *no apples*, you do *not walk*. The French generally use two of these words where we use but one. We say, I possess *no* land: they say, *je ne possède pas* de terre; that is, I possess *not of land*. But, indeed, you cannot translate here *word for word*. *NE* and *PAS* amount in this case to *no*; and they must be made use of to answer to it. Let us take our verb *TROUVER*, and conjugate it with the negatives; or, at least (for that will be enough), let us conjugate it as far as relates to the first person of each mode and time. We will put the infinitive also; for, in that case, both the French negatives come before the verb.

Not to find,
I do not find,
I did not find,
I shall not find,
I may not find,
I should not find,
I might not find,
Not finding,
Not found,

Ne pas trouver.
Je ne trouve pas.
Je ne trouvais pas.
Je ne trouverai pas.
Je ne trouve pas.
Je ne trouverais pas.
Je ne trouvasse pas.
Ne trouvant pas.
Ne pas trouvé.

In the compound times of the verb, the negative comes before and after the auxiliary; as:

Not to have found,	<i>Ne pas avoir trouvé.</i>
I have not found,	<i>Je n'ai pas trouvé.</i>
I had not found,	<i>Je n'avais pas trouvé.</i>
I shall not have found,	<i>Je n'aurai pas trouvé.</i>
I may not have found,	<i>Je n'aie pas trouvé.</i>
I should not have found,	<i>Je n'aurais pas trouvé.</i>
I might not have found,	<i>Je n'eusse pas trouvé.</i>
Not having found,	<i>N'ayant pas trouvé.</i>
Not being found,	<i>N'étant pas trouvé.</i>

338. That is the way that we use the negatives with the *verb*; and here, as you see, *ne* and *pas* together answer to our *not*. When we, in English, have a noun to use the negative with, and not a verb, we make use of *no* for our negative; as, I have *no* wine. The French, however, adhere to their *ne* and *pas*; as, *je n'ai pas de vin*. Sometimes, however, *point* is used instead of *pas*. There is only this difference in them, that *point* always requires *de* before a noun that follows; and *pas* does not always require it. *Point* means, more decidedly, *no, not, or none at all*; as:

He does not know you (at all),		Il <i>ne</i> vous connaît <i>point</i> .
There is no man (at all),		Il n'y a <i>point</i> d'homme.

But we may say indifferently, *je n'ai pas d'argent*; *je ne possède pas de terre*; or, *je n'ai point d'argent*; *je ne possède point de terre*. There are a few words that require *pas* exclusively; but these are of such common use as to prevent all chance of error.

339. The French use *NON* to answer to our *no*, when we put no other words; as, will you go with me? *No. Voulez-vous aller avec moi? NON*. This *NON* sometimes becomes *NON PAS*, when the speaker wishes to give a very decided negative. In cases where we should say, *no, indeed!* the French would, perhaps,

say, *non pas*; but the *non* being sufficient, it may be best to use it only. Our adverbial phrase NOT AT ALL is commonly expressed by *pas du tout*, or, in familiar speech, by *du tout*, dropping the *pas*. When we say, *not that*, the French do very often make use of *non pas*; as, I eat brown bread, *not that* I like it better than white; *je mange du pain bis, non pas que je l'aime mieux que le blanc.*

340. When there is a negative word, such as *pas un*, *personne*, *aucun*, *nul*, *rien*, *nullément*, *guère*, *jamais*, and some few others, the *pas* or *point* is not used at all; but *ne* is; as:

<i>Elle n'a personne pour la consoler,</i>	She has nobody to console her.
<i>Je n'ai jamais été dans ce pays-là,</i>	I have never been in that country.
<i>Vous ne lui dites rien,</i>	You say not hing to him, or, to her.

There are some others which are *negatives in themselves*, and, of course, they do not require the double negation. There are two words, a great deal used, that require the double negative always, except when used with *dire* and *voir*, *to say*, and *to see*. These two words are *not* and *goutte*. The first means *word*; the last (in this negative sense) *not a jot*, or *a bit*, or *the least*. The word *not* is (in this sense) understood to mean *not a word*. They are two very common expressions, and are used thus:

<i>Je ne disais mot,</i>	I said not a word.
<i>Je ne voyais goutte,</i>	I saw nothing at all.

But, with other verbs than *dire* and *voir*, these are not looked upon as negative words; and, of course, they take the *ne* and *pas*, or *point*.

341. There are some words which require *ne* after them *before the next verb*, though there appears, at first sight, to be nothing of the negative quality in our

English sentence that answers to any of those in which this *NE* is found ; as :

Il craint que sa récolte <i>ne</i> soit gâtée,	He fears that his crop may be spoiled.
A moins qu'il <i>ne</i> soit blessé,	Unless he should be wounded.

But though there may be no *negative* in the English phrase, there is fear or apprehension expressed that something *may*, and perhaps hope that something *may not* happen. If the same verbs do not express a feeling of this sort, then the two negatives are used in the usual manner.

342. *Ne* is used without *pas* or *point*, before the verb that follows *plus*, *moins*, *mieux*, *autre*, and *autrement* : also before verbs that are coupled by *ni* ; and also after *que* and *si*, signifying *until*, *unless*, or *but*, when these come in a sentence, the former part of which is negative ; as, *je ne chante ni ne danse* ; I neither sing nor dance. *Je ne lui écrirai pas qu'il ne m'envoie mes livres* ; I will not write to him *unless* he sends me my books.

343. But there are some cases in which the French use but *one negative*, though there be no other word of a negative nature in the sentence. These cases are worthy of particular attention ; because, to use the two negatives instead of one, is a great and glaring error. I shall, therefore, be very particular in pointing out to you when the second negative is to be omitted.

1. When *de* follows the verb, and is used in the describing of a space of time ; as :

<i>Je ne lui parlerai de ma vie,</i>	I will not speak to him as long as I live.
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2. With the adverb *plus* (more) ; as, *je ne viendrai plus* ; I will come no more. But mind, this is only when our *more* is used in the sense of *again*, or *in addition* ; for, when *more* is used

cunning, you ought to pay particular attention to this rule :

Ils n'osent vous le dire,
Il ne peut le faire,

They dare not tell it you.
He cannot do it.

It would, however, be perfectly correct to say,

Ils n'osent *pas* vous le dire,
Il ne peut *pas* le faire;

and in these latter phrases the negative is more strongly and emphatically expressed.

6. When we employ *why* in the asking of a question, and the French do not employ *pourquoi*, but *que*, to answer to our *why*, then the *ne* is used without *pas* or *point*; as :

Que n'allez-vous la voir ?
Que ne parlez-vous ?

Why do you not go to see her ?
Why do you not speak ?

But mind, if you make use of *pourquoi* in French, and not of *que*, you must employ the double negative; as, *pourquoi n'allez-vous pas la voir* ; *pourquoi ne parlez-vous pas* ?

344. Read these rules over several times before you enter upon the Exercise. I do not suppose that you will carry them all in your head: but some part of some of them you will make fast in your mind at once; and as you *read* in books (for now you may begin to read French), these rules will occur to you; for, twenty times in an hour, perhaps, you will meet with passages to illustrate them.

EXERCISE X.

1. They have not been thither these four or five years.
2. I shall not now give you such short sentences to translate as I have given you up to this time
3. You have not been in that country for a long while.

4. I have not seen the man who came here last night.
5. Certainly I will not give you more than ten pounds.
6. You will have been only six years in your office.
7. You have no land and no flocks.
8. That is not a good man. That is not true, Sir.
9. There is no straw and no hay in the loft.
10. I have none of those trees that you sold me.
11. I had none of the cattle that he spoke to me of.
12. I have seen none of them for some time.
13. Lend me some money. I cannot; for I have none.
14. Have they been here to-day? No.
15. Not that I dislike the people of that country.
16. Not that I cannot go if I like it.
17. Will you go with me? No; I will not.
18. She can neither read nor write.
19. He cannot write, neither can he read.
20. We shall not sail to-morrow; and perhaps not next day.
21. Neither master nor man will be here.
22. Neither he nor his wife nor their children have good health.
23. They have but twenty acres of land.
24. We speak to them very rarely.
25. There is only one good man in the company.
26. Why do you not go to see your estate?
27. Why do you live continually in the town?
28. He does nothing but talk and sing.
29. They do not know what to do.
30. Did I not tell you that you could not come in?
31. Have you brought me a bag of gold? No, indeed!
32. It is not that I dislike the dinner; but I do not like the manner of cooking it.
33. He does not cease to talk and make a noise.

34. They dare not do what they threaten to do.
35. They cannot come to-morrow, I am very sure.
36. You neither eat nor drink with us; and why not,
my friends?
37. Why will you not sit down and dine with us?
38. No; I am much obliged to you; I cannot stop now.
39. Well, then, come to-morrow. I cannot, indeed.
40. They have only bread and water to eat and drink.
41. Man is not to live on bread alone.
42. I doubt not but he will pay you what he owes you.
43. I cannot write if I have not a candle.
44. I shall not write to her unless she write to me first.
45. Take care that you be not deceived.
46. There is more wine than is wanted.
47. He said more than was necessary.
48. I will hinder them from doing mischief in the country.
49. I do not deny that I said that he was a bad man.
50. She is older than people think.
51. She is less rich than was thought.
52. He is quite different from what I expected.
53. They are better off than you thought.
54. I am afraid that he will come too soon.
55. I am afraid that he will not come soon enough.
56. She apprehends that there will be a quarrel.
57. They are afraid that their mother is ill.
58. They are afraid that the army will come.
59. They are afraid that the army will not come.
60. Not to talk too much of the matter.
61. It is good not to go too fast.
62. Do you think that this is too long? Not at all.
63. Not to do according to your word is very bad.
64. Is not this a very cold summer?
65. Not colder than the last, though cold enough.

345. We now come to the INTERROGATIVES. When you consider how large a part of all speaking and writing consists of QUESTIONS, you will want nothing said by me to convince you of the importance of this part of your study. Let us take the verb *TROUVER* again here, and conjugate it in the interrogative form, as we did in the negative form; for, you will observe, that there must be *a verb* belonging to every negative and every question. I shall conjugate only a part of the verb; because it would be waste of room to put the whole conjugation.

Present Time, Singular.	{ <i>trouv��-je ?</i> <i>trouves-tu ?</i> <i>trouve-t-il ?</i>	do I find ? dost thou find ? does he find ?
Present Time, Plural.	{ <i>trouvons-nous ?</i> <i>trouvez-vous ?</i> <i>trouvent-ils ?</i>	do we find ? do you find ? do they find ?
Past Time, Singular.	{ <i>trouvais-je ?</i> <i>trouvais-tu ?</i> <i>trouvait-il ?</i>	did I find ? didst thou find ? did he find ?
Past Time, Plural.	{ <i>trouvions-nous ?</i> <i>trouviez-vous ?</i> <i>trouvaient-ils ?</i>	did we find ? did you find ? did they find ?

That is enough. You see (and, indeed, you saw it long ago,) the French have no *do* and *did*, and *will* and *shall*, and the like. They ask the question by the verb itself. They say, *find I ? find we ? find they ?* and so on. Nothing can be plainer than this. But before I proceed to show how questions are put if there be a noun instead of a pronoun, let me explain a little matter that may appear odd to you. You see all these French verbs connected with the pronouns by *hyphens*. This is a general rule: you see it in all cases. But in

the first question of all, you see an *accent* over the *é* in *trouv  *. This is to soften the sound; and the accent is used with this verb only in this particular case. See paragraph 191, for a full explanation of this; and see the close of that paragraph for the reason why there are a *t* and two hyphens placed after *trouve* in the third question above.

346. Well, then, the above is the manner in which the French put questions with the *pronoun*. Let us now see how they put questions where there is a noun; where they are asking something about a third party, and making use of the noun and not the pronoun. They begin by naming the party; as:

<i>Richard est-il venu ?</i>	Is Richard come ?
<i>Pierre est-il malade ?</i>	Is Peter sick ?
<i>Mes s��urs sont-elles arriv��es ?</i>	Are my sisters arrived ?
<i>Vos chevaux courent-ils ?</i>	Do your horses run ?

347. But there is another manner of asking questions in French; and, indeed, it is the manner most in use. The question, let the persons or things be of what number or of what gender they may, begins with these words, *EST-CE QUE*. I put them in large letters; for you must become exceedingly well acquainted with them, they being everlastingly upon a French tongue:

<i>Est-ce que vous avez d��n�� ?</i>	Have you dined ?
<i>Est-ce qu'elle s'en va ?</i>	Is she going away ?
<i>Est-ce qu'il se porte bien ?</i>	Is he well ?
<i>Est-ce qu'il fait froid ?</i>	Is it cold ?
<i>Est-ce que nous avons de l'argent ?</i>	Have we any money ?
<i>Est-ce que Richard est venu ?</i>	Is Richard come ?
<i>Est-ce que Jean et Pierre sont malades ?</i>	Are John and Peter sick ?

What, then, is this *Est-ce que*? Word for word it is, *is this that?* or, *is it that?* And the first of these questions is, in fact, this: *Is it that* you have dined?

The French make use of *ce*, and not of *il*, as was observed in paragraph 321 (which I beg you to look at directly). They make use of *this* and not of *it*, but with this exception, there is nothing at all strange in the question, "*Is it that* you have dined?" We frequently, in English, make use of expressions like this: "*Is it that* you disbelieve me that you do not attend to me?" "*Is it that* I am beneath your notice; or, *is it that* you cannot see your danger in neglecting my advice?" We do not, in English, make use of this manner, except in serious discourse and writing; but the French make use of it in their familiar discourse. It rids them of all the stiffness and awkwardness that their questions would otherwise have. *Trouvé-je?* and *Trouve-t-il?* for instance, become *Est-ce que je trouve?* and *Est-ce qu'il trouve?* and all is smooth and harmonious.

348. But let me beg of you to pay great attention to this *Est-ce*; for it is surprising how great are the functions that it performs. Sometimes it has the *que* after it, and sometimes before it:

<i>Est-ce qu'elle est riche?</i>	Is she rich?
<i>N'est ce pas qu'elle est riche?</i>	Is she not rich?
<i>Qu'est-ce que c'est?</i>	What is it?
<i>Qu'est-ce que c'est que Jean dit?</i>	What does John say?

Literally, it is, *what* (or *which*) *is this that this is that John says?* Never think it wild or foolish; it is all right enough, and that you will find in a short time. Do not waste your time in finding fault with the French language; *learn* it as quickly as you can.

<i>Qu'est-ce que c'est que cela?</i>		What is that?
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There are various other ways of turning such phrases, some more, some less frequent or elegant; as:

<i>Est-ce qu'elle n'est pas riche ?</i>	Is she not rich ?
<i>N'est-elle pas riche ?</i>	Is not she rich ?
<i>Est-elle riche ?</i>	Is she rich ?
<i>Qu'est-ce que Jean dit ?</i>	What does John say ?
<i>Que dit Jean ?</i>	What says John ?
<i>Qu'est-ce que cela ?</i>	What is that ?
<i>Qu'est-ce ?</i>	What is it ?

[NOTE.—There are some who tell us that the phrase *Qu'est-ce que c'est que* is merely vulgar, or at least old-fashioned, and that the use of it should not be taught: also that *Qu'est-ce que*, and even *Est-ce que*, as we see them in the foregoing examples, should rather be avoided, as cumbersome. They are, however, very common expressions in practice; although *Que dit-il ?* What does he say ? may be much better than *Qu'est-ce que c'est qu'il dit ?* or even than *Qu'est-ce qu'il dit ?*

<i>Qu'est-ce que vous voulez ?</i>	}	What do you want, or wish ?
or <i>Que voulez-vous ?</i>		
<i>Qu'est-ce que vous dites ?</i>	}	What do you say ?
or <i>Que dites-vous ?</i>		
<i>Qu'est-ce que vous demandez ?</i>	}	What do you ask for ?
or <i>Que demandez vous ?</i>		
<i>Est-ce-que son père est au logis ?</i>	}	Is his father at home ?
or <i>Son père est il au logis ?</i>		
<i>Est-ce que sa sœur est à l'école ?</i>	}	Is his sister at school ?
or <i>Sa sœur est elle à l'école ?</i>		

The latter form, in each of these, is said to be the one preferable.]

349. I will now give you an Exercise with a great variety of questions; and before I close it, I will introduce negatives as well as interrogatives, and both in abundance. Go through this Exercise with great care;

and if you make a tolerably correct translation of it, you may truly say that you know something of the French language.

EXERCISE XI.

1. Are you talking to the gentlemen about the house ?
2. Did the army march this morning ?
3. Will the carpenter come to-morrow ?
4. Why will he not come directly ?
5. Was the house on fire when you were in town ?
6. Does not Richard come to-night ?
7. Did he strike you ?
8. Did they take away your coach and horses ?
9. Did you think of that ?
10. Is that your book ? Yes, it is.
11. Is that your brother ? Yes, it is.
12. Do you talk of her very often ?
13. Does he go in search of the merchandise that he has lost ?
14. Will they pay us what they owe us ?
15. Will they have paid us when they have paid ten pounds more ?
16. Would they have thought of it ?
17. Has he any of it left ?
18. Do you give it to me ?
19. Did she tell it to him ?
20. Did he not tell it to her ?
21. Will they speak of it to you ?
22. I get up in the morning ?
23. I do not get up.
24. Do I get up ?
25. Do I not get up ?
26. Does he not get up early ?

27. Have you not told it to me ?
28. Had she told it to him ?
29. Will they have paid it to us ?
30. Would he have spoken of it to you ?
31. Did you seek for your money in his box ?
32. Did you find some of it there ?
33. Will they not strike and hurt you ?
34. Does he not speak of it to them ?
35. Would he not have done you great injury ?
36. Do you not give it to me ?
37. Do you not apply yourself to the French ?
38. Did she not tell it to him ?
39. Will they not give it to us ?
40. Will he not speak of it to you ?
41. Have you not told it to me ?
42. Had she not told it to him ?
43. Does corn grow well in that land ?
44. Are not the trees very fine in the woods of
America ?
45. No: they are not very fine in all parts of the
country.
46. But the plains are very large, are they not ?
47. Would he not have spoken of it to you ?
48. Would not Thomas come, if you were to send for
him ?
49. Are the pheasants and hares all destroyed ?
50. No: but a great many of them have been caught.
51. I do not tell you not to go thither.
52. I did not tell you not to speak of it.
53. Not to talk too much of one's-self.
54. I have told him not to pay more than twenty
pounds.
55. Is he not a captain, or a colonel ?

56. Will the fleet go to Jamaica ?
57. Do you not think that it will be fine ?
58. You have great estates, not to mention your ready-money.
59. Will John not be there sooner than will be necessary ?
60. I do not think that he will.
61. Do you see nothing at all in it ?
62. Has he not said a word to you about the matter ?
63. Do you not fear that the money will come too late ?
64. Did they see nobody going that way ?
65. Have the labourers but little to eat and drink ?
66. Is not that the poorest man who has the least to eat and to wear ?
67. They will never forgive him unless he ask pardon of them.
68. Is not mine a very pretty room ?
69. Is not this Exercise a very long one ?
70. It is very long, but, I hope, not more long than useful.

LETTER XXI.

SYNTAX OF IMPERSONALS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

350. You must now go back to paragraph 136. There I have explained the nature of the *Impersonals*. You must read from that paragraph to 141 very attentively. Pray observe, that what I am now going to say you will be able to understand but very imperfectly, unless you first go back and read very attentively the paragraphs just mentioned.

351. There are, then, four principal IMPERSONALS; that is to say, IL Y A, IL EST or C'EST, IL FAUT, and IL FAIT. Let us take them one by one.

352. IL Y A answers to our *there is*, or *there are*; and *some*; as:

There is a hawk on the tree,		<i>il y a un faucon sur l'arbre.</i>
There are birds in the nest,		<i>il y a des oiseaux dans le nid.</i>
Some men like that,		<i>il y a des hommes qui aiment cela.</i>
Some of them did not like it,		<i>il y en avait qui ne l'aimaient pas.</i>
There will be ten bushels of wheat,		<i>il y aura dix boisseaux de blé.</i>

This impersonal changes its form to express *time* and *mode*; but not for any other purpose. You see, in the above examples, the present *il y a*, the past *il y avait*, and the future *il y aura*.

353. We, in speaking of distances from place to place, make use of *it is*; as, *it is* twenty-six miles from London to Windsor. The French, in such cases, make use of *il y a*, and say, *il y a* vingt-six milles de Londres à Windsor; which is, mind, literally speaking, *it there has* twenty-six miles from London to

Windsor. And this is just as reasonable as to say *it is*; for one might ask, *what is*? What do you mean by this *it*?

354. The same rule applies to our *it* ^{is}, when employed to designate a space of time; as, *it is* four months since I came hither; *il y a* quatre mois que je suis ici. When we speak of something that happened some time *ago*, the French answer our phrase by *il y a* and the present time of the verb; as:

That tree was planted *fifty years ago*, | *Il y a cinquante ans* que cet arbre est planté.

355. In questions where we begin with *how long*, or *how far*, and then proceed with our *is* ^{it}; in these cases the French begin with *combien*; that is, *how much* or *how many*. You know that *how* is *comment*, and that *far* is *loin*; but you must not, when you go to France, and are on the road from Calais to Paris, and want to know *how far* you have to go to get to St. Omers; you must not, in this case, say to the person to whom you address yourself, *comment loin* (how far), but *combien* (how much, or how many). Thus it is, too, with regard to space of time, and with regard to numbers. And mind, when a question is asked, the order of the words of the impersonal is reversed. It is *y a-t-il*, and not *il y a*. You see that the *t* and the double hyphen are used here. You have seen the reason for this at the close of paragraph 345; at which, however, you may now take another look. Take now a few examples:

<i>How many cities are there in France?</i>	<i>Combien de villes y a-t-il en France?</i>
<i>How much sand is there in the cart?</i>	<i>Combien de sable y a-t-il dans la charrette?</i>
<i>How far is it from this to St. Omers?</i>	<i>Combien y a-t-il d'ici à St. Omer?</i>
<i>How long is it since you began?</i>	<i>Combien y a-t-il que vous avez commencé?</i>

You see, then, the extensive use of this Impersonal. It is constantly on the tongue of those who speak French. Great care must be taken to give it its proper place in the sentence. That place is different under different circumstances; but attention will very soon make you master of the matter.

356. IL EST, or C'EST. Look at paragraph 321. I had there, in speaking of the Demonstrative Pronoun *ce*, to explain to you the *reason* of this *c'est*; but I then referred you to this place for instructions as to the manner of using *c'est*. Literally, *il est* means *it is*, and *c'est* (that is, *ce est*) means *this is*, as I have before shown. In some cases they may, as impersonal verbs, be made use of indifferently; but in other cases they cannot. The sense will, in a great measure, instruct us when one is to be used, and when the other; but this may be always relied on, that when the impersonal can be translated into English by *that*, *this*, or *what*, the French must be *c'est*, and not *il est*; as:

That is what pleases me,		<i>c'est ce qui me plait.</i>
This is what I thought,		<i>c'est ce que je pensais.</i>

And not *il est* cela, and *il est* ce que.

357. When the noun which the impersonal refers to is *not a person*, and when there is no adjective followed by a verb coming next after the impersonal, or when the word *thing* is, under any circumstances, expressed in the sentence, *c'est*, and not *il est*, is to be used. But, if there be an adjective so coming directly after the impersonal, and if the word *thing* be not mentioned in the sentence, *il est* is used.

[NOTE.—One cannot in a few words fully explain when to use the one and when the other, *il est* or *c'est*. But, in the first place, it may be said that *il est*, used

impersonally, applies only to things or circumstances, as distinguished from persons, while *c'est* applies to all things, persons included. Thus the French say, *c'est l'homme qui*, *it is the man who*; *c'est l'arbre qui*, *it is the tree which*; *c'est moi, toi, lui, elle, nous qui*, *it is I, thou, he, she, we who*. But *il est*, in accordance with the rule stated in the foregoing paragraph, applies only in such cases as the following, where the use of *il* and that of *ce* will be seen contrasted:

<i>Il est impossible de connaître tout le monde,</i>	It is impossible to know everybody.
<i>C'est une chose impossible,</i>	It is a thing impossible.
<i>Où, ce serait impossible,</i>	Yes, it would be impossible.
<i>Il était défendu d'en parler,</i>	It was forbidden to speak of it.
<i>C'était son frère qui m'en a parlé,</i>	It was his brother who spoke to me of it.
<i>Il est à croire que cela arrivera,</i>	It is to be believed that that will happen.
<i>C'est déjà de fait,</i>	It is already the fact.
<i>Il est fâcheux de devoir vous quitter,</i>	It is unfortunate to have to leave you.
<i>C'est fâcheux, mais c'est votre faute,</i>	It is unfortunate, but it is your fault.
<i>Il est agréable d'entendre chanter les oiseaux,</i>	It is agreeable to hear the birds sing.
<i>Non seulement agréable; c'est délicieux,</i>	Not only agreeable; it is delightful.

What is here expressed by *il* may be considered as something merely supposed, or in contemplation, because the *il* is connected in meaning with nothing but the phrases, *de connaître tout le monde*, *d'en parler*, *que cela arrivera*, and so on. But the *ce* (*this, that, or it*), which is a demonstrative pronoun, points to the different persons or things as having actual existence, so far at least as this, that they stand identified by a noun or pronoun, or are recognized subjects of previous

remark. One thing helping to explain the difference is, that where the *ce* is used we might, instead, often use the word „*cela*: oui, *cela est* impossible; *cela est* déjà de fait; *cela est* délicieux.]

358. This impersonal is sometimes used instead of *il y a*; but in this case *il est* is used; and not *c'est*: as, *il est* des gens qui ne sont jamais contents; *there are* people who are never contented. We may say, also, *il y a* des gens qui ne sont jamais contents. But mind, you cannot *always* use *il est* for *il y a*. It is only when the noun referred to is a plural, and of a general and indefinite character, like *gens*. [Grammarians differ as to the use of *il est* in place of *il y a*. CHAMBAUD calls it an elegance to write, *Il est* des amitiés véritables, there are true friendships (instead of *il y a*). Some condemn this altogether, except with a negative, as: *il n'est rien* qui me plaise davantage, there is nothing that pleases me more; *il n'est rien* tel que d'avoir du bonheur, there is nothing like having good fortune.] And mind, you cannot employ *c'est* to supply the place of *il y a*.

359. *Il est*, and not *c'est*, is used in speaking of portions of time as counted by the clock, or as relating to the different times of the day. The French do not say *it is twelve o'clock* (which is a very odd phrase), but, *it is twelve hours*. They say, it is *one hour*, it is *two hours*, and so on. Now, in saying this, they do not use *c'est*, but *il est*; thus, *il est une heure*, *il est deux heures*. But, in answer to *questions* relating to time, *c'est* may be used. When we ask what it is o'clock, they say, *quelle heure est-il?* and not *quelle heure est-ce?*

360. I noticed in the rules on the articles, that we say, he is *a* captain, she is *a* mantua-maker, and so on;

and that the French say, he is captain, she is mantua-maker, without the article. In these cases they use the personal pronoun *de* and *il*; but if the French use the article, they use *c'est*.

361. In all other cases *c'est* may be, and indeed ought to be, used. This impersonal may be used in the plural of the verb of the third person. It may, indeed, be also used in the singular of that person; but, it is used in the plural also; as:

C'est les loups qui ont tué les moutons.

Ce sont les loups qui ont tué les moutons.

But in interrogations the impersonal adheres, in all cases, to the third person singular of the verb *to be*; as:

Est-ce les loups qui ont tué les moutons?

Est-ce le loup qu'on a attrapé?

362. IL FAUT comes next. This impersonal, like most other good and useful things, is to be rendered available to us only by great labour and attention. I explained the source and the nature of it in paragraph 139. I am now about to explain to you the manner of using it. But I must beg you to read that paragraph very attentively. If I did not suppose that you would do this, I should repeat the whole of it again here; for that which I am now going to say is nothing, that is, it will be of no use, unless you first read that paragraph with great care.

363. You see, then, that no two things can be more unlike than the two languages are in this respect. The *il faut* consists of the pronoun that answers to our *it*, and of a part of the verb *to be necessary*; and, taken together, they answer to our *must*, but in some cases to a great deal more than our *must*. For instance, *faut-il aller chez-lui*? Is it necessary to go to his

house? Then, our *must* cannot be translated literally into French. *I must, we must*, and the like, cannot be expressed in French at all, if they stand thus without other words. *I must go*. To answer to this, the French say, *il faut que j'aille*; that is, *it is necessary that I go*, or, *I am obliged to go*, or, *there is compulsion for my going*.

364. And mind, this *il faut* applies to all persons and all things: to me, to you, to him, to her, to it, and, in short, to all nouns and pronouns. It states that *there is necessity, or obligation*: then comes the noun or pronoun representing the party obliged; then comes the statement of what the necessity or obligation is to produce; as:

Il faut que je fasse,
Il faut que vous fassiez,
Il faut qu'il fasse,
Il faut qu'ils fassent,
Il faut que nous fassions,

I must make.
 you must make.
 he must make.
 they must make.
 we must make.

There is, in these cases, always a *que*, you see, coming after the *il faut*; and you have seen the *reason* of this before. The French words, being literally translated, mean: it is necessary *that* I make, and so on; and *que*, in this case, means *that*.

365. But it is not thus in all cases; for there is no *que* when *il faut* is followed by the infinitive of the verb; as, *il faut aller*; it is necessary *to go*. Mind, the infinitive is often used thus in French to answer to English phrases in which the verb is not in the infinitive; as:

<i>Il faut faire son devoir,</i>	{ one must do one's duty.
	{ we must do our duty.
	{ they must do their duty.

And, in many cases, the phrase may take this turn in English: one's duty *must be done*.

366. Where we, in English, express *a want* of something the French sometimes make use of the verb *avoir*, followed by *besoin* (want) and *de*; as, I *want* a stick, *j'ai besoin d'un bâton*. This French phrase literally is, *I have want of a stick*. And this is an expression in great use.

<i>J'ai besoin d'or,</i>		I want some gold.
<i>Vous aviez besoin d'une chaise,</i>		you wanted a chair.
<i>Ils auront besoin d'une brouette,</i>		they will want a wheelbarrow.

Now mind, *il faut* is, in many cases, made use of instead of *avoir besoin de*. But then the phrase must take a different form, and the pronoun must be in the objective case; as:

<i>Il me faut de l'or,</i>		I want some gold.
<i>Il vous fallait une chaise,</i>		you wanted a chair.
<i>Il leur faudra une brouette,</i>		they will want a wheelbarrow.

Pay great attention to this turn of the phrase; for it is in these seemingly little matters that much of the most useful part of your study lies.

367. Sometimes we express *want* by the use of the *passive verb*; that is to say, by the passive participle of *to want* and the verb *to be*; as, men *are wanted* to make an army. Here *il faut* is the expression; as, *il faut des hommes pour faire une armée*.

Pour faire la guerre il faut de l'argent, | *To make war there must be money.*

368. When we speak of the manner of doing a thing, or of the manner of being, or of the manner of conducting one's-self, and employ, in phrases of this description, *ought* or *should*; as, you do not know what you *ought*; in these cases the French employ *il faut*; as:

You work as you ought,	<i>vous travaillez comme il faut.</i>
They do not write as they should,	<i>ils n'écrivent pas comme il faut.</i>
They do what they ought,	<i>ils font ce qu'il faut.</i>
I have what I ought to have,	<i>j'ai ce qu'il me faut.</i>

Comme il faut means, also, as it is *necessary to be*, as it is *proper to be*, and hence come the expressions, *des gens comme il faut*, *une femme comme il faut*, and so on; which mean, *respectable people*, *a respectable woman*; or, literally, *people as they ought to be*, *a woman as she ought to be*.

369. *IL FAIT* is the last of these impersonal verbs. Literally it means, *it makes*. This is an expression so different in its nature from that by which we effect the same purposes, that it is necessary to notice it; though this impersonal is not of very extensive use. It is nearly confined to phrases relating to the weather, or the state of the air and sky, or that of the ground as affected by the elements. We say, for instance, *it is fine weather*; the French say, *il fait beau temps*; that is, *it makes fine weather*; for *temps* is *weather* as well as *time*. Thus, they say:

<i>Il fait froid,</i>	it is cold.
<i>Il fait chaud,</i>	it is hot.
<i>Il fait jour,</i>	it is light.
<i>Il fait sombre,</i>	it is dark.

Il fait is used in some other cases, when the English *it is* relates to one's being well or ill off with respect to circumstances of place; but this is rather a liberty than otherwise. As to *rain*, there is the verb and the noun, *pleuvoir* and *pluie*; and it is the same with *hail* and *snow*. However, the French frequently say, *tomber* (to fall) *de la pluie*, *de la grêle*, *de la neige*: and they even put *il fait* before these nouns, as well as before the adjectives *jour* and *nuit*, *light* and *dark*, not *day* and *night*.

370. Now, before I give you the exercise on these IMPERSONAL Verbs, I ought to observe, that every

phrase may be called an *Impersonal*, if *it* be the nominative, and if there be no noun to which the *it* relates; as, *it suits* well to ride on horseback. Here is no noun that the *it* refers to; or, at least, there is no noun that you can *name*. The verb VALOIR (to be worth) is one of those which is often used in the impersonal form, and it is in great use. Employed in this way, it answers to our *is better, was better, is not so good, and the like*; as:

It is better,	<i>il vaut mieux.</i>
It was better,	<i>il valait mieux.</i>
It will be better,	<i>il vaudra mieux.</i>
It is not so good as,	<i>il ne vaut pas tant que.</i>
It was not so good as,	<i>il ne valait pas tant que.</i>
It will not be so good as,	<i>il ne vaudra pas tant que.</i>

This is, then, a word of great consequence. The French, you see, say, *it is worth better*, and not, *it is better*. And we sometimes say, in English, that one thing is *better worth* a pound than another is worth a penny. You know this verb well; you have it fully conjugated at paragraph 237; and you have it in your table of irregular verbs on your card. From this verb comes the appellation of VAURIEN, which means *a good-for-nothing* person. This verb, used as impersonal, answers also to our *worth while*, the French using *peine* instead of *while*; thus, *it is not worth while*, *il ne vaut pas la peine*; that is, it is not worth the *trouble* or *labour*.

EXERCISE XII.

1. It is fine weather in that country almost all the year.
2. Last autumn it was very bad weather in America.
3. In that country it rains almost continually.
4. They say that at Lima it never rains at all.

5. There are seven acres of land, and six very fine houses.
6. There is a great quantity of mud at the bottom of the pond.
7. There is a great variety of peaches.
8. There are many of them in that garden.
9. There are wood-buds and fruit-buds.
10. There was a terrible out-cry in the town.
11. If it be stone-fruit trees that you have to prune.
12. There are many of them there.
13. You must examine, and be sure whether there be a good wood-bud
14. See that there is no corner lost, and no plat that remains uncropped.
15. You must not let any of them come in.
16. We want fine weather for the harvest.
17. I want friends to assist me in so great an enterprise.
18. To get good corn and meat there must be good land.
19. Plenty of manure and good tillage are necessary to produce good hops.
20. There were twenty; the whole of the twenty were wanted, but they left us only seven.
21. This is an act that we must never forget.
22. It was his servant who told it them.
23. There were sixty houses knocked down by the cannon-ball.
24. It is better to remain as you are for a few months.
25. It is a great deal better to be poor and healthy than rich and unhealthy.
26. It is very bad to travel when you are not well.
27. It is very painful to be obliged to leave you in your present state.

28. He is an honest man. He is a knave.
29. He is honest. He is knavish. She is good and wise.
30. It was your father who gave you that diamond.
31. Was it they who did so much mischief in the village?
32. It was they who cut down the trees and set fire to the houses.
33. No: it was she that ordered it to be done.
34. I do not know that it was she who gave the order.
35. My uncle has been dead these forty years.
36. I have lived here for more than twenty years.
37. It is seventeen miles from this place to that.
38. How far is it from this to the top of the mountain?
39. How long will it be before you come back?
40. How many oxen are in the park?
41. And how many of them are there in the stable?
42. People must have children to be able to feel for parents.
43. Has there not been a very long debate to-night?
44. Has there ever been a longer one?
45. There is only that which is not useful.
46. Are there any vineyards in this country?
47. No: there are not any that I know of. What! are there none?
48. It is the finest land that ever was seen; but the climate is bad.
49. It is about four miles, and I suppose that we can get to it about nine o'clock.
50. Will it be dark before we can get to it? No: for it is light now till past nine.
51. It is very dirty since the last rain; and it seems as if it would rain again before to-morrow night.

52. It has been a very fine day to-day.

53. Do you believe that? Is there any one that believes
 . it? Is, there any one of them who does not de-
 spise the man who says it?

I must not dismiss this subject without a remark or two upon the nature of the Impersonals. In my *English Grammar*, I contended that DR. LOWTH, MR. LINDLEY MURRAY, and others, were in error in supposing that *plural nouns and pronouns ought never to be placed after our IT*, used as an impersonal. I gave an instance in this phrase: "IT is the *dews and showers* which *makè* the grass grow." I contended that it was proper, because the verb *is* did not relate to *dews and showers*; but to IT, which *it* meant, if well looked into, a *state of things*. Now, it is the same in French; for we say, "C'EST les *loups* qui *tuent* les moutons." I, in my *Grammar*, paragraph 60, contended, that though there was no *visible* noun to which the *it* related, yet that there would be found to be a noun *understood*, if the matter were well looked into. I took as an instance, "*it will rain*;" and I said that the full meaning was this: "A STATE OF THINGS *called rain* WILL BE." In consulting the work of MONSIEUR RESTAUT, I find him agreeing with me as to this matter. He takes the instance of "*il pleut*," and he says, that the full meaning is, "QUELQUE CHOSE *qui est la pluie* EST." The utility of this explanation is great: for it gives you the *reason* for using nouns and pronouns in the plural after *it is*, *it was*, *it will be*, and so forth; and to do a thing well with a reason is a great deal better than to do it well without a reason. We say, in English, IT IS THEY who write. BISHOP LOWTH says that this is *not correct*.

No? What will he put, then? The French, however, settle the question for us; for they say, *C'EST EUX* qui écrivent; *C'EST LES LOUPS* qui tuent les moutons. . [In practice, the French here use the verb either in the singular or in the plural, with the plural noun or pronoun, as already shown in the example in paragraph 361: *c'est* (or *ce sont*) *eux*; *c'est* (or *ce sont*) *les loups*.]

[NOTE.—There are several verbs, besides those here particularly mentioned, which are constantly used as impersonals. These are referred to in paragraph 370. The most important of them are the following:

AGIR DE,	to have to do with, or affect.
ARRIVER,	to happen, or come to pass.
CONVENIR,	to become, or be fitting.
IMPORTER,	to matter, or be of consequence.
PARAÎTRE,	to appear.
SEMBLER,	to seem.
SUFFIRE,	to suffice, or be enough.

These, like the verb *être*, are used with *il* in the third person; as: *il s'agit de la vie*, it is a question of life; *il arrive quelque fois*, it sometimes happens; *il me convient*, it is fit, or proper for me; and so on.]

LETTER XXII.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

371. I went, in the *Etymology*, very fully into the subject of adjectives. You will now read what I there said. You will find it between paragraphs 101 and 111, both inclusive; and you must read those ten over now with great care; because, if you do not, you cannot well understand the matter now about to be addressed to you. In those paragraphs I very fully described the nature and properties and offices of this part of speech; I described its changes for the purpose of expressing *gender* and *number* and *comparison*; I gave the rules for the making of these changes; and I told you that you would learn from the *Syntax* how to *place* adjectives in sentences, which, as I then told you, is a matter of some importance. However, there are other things to attend to now besides the proper placing of the adjectives.

372. You have seen that adjectives change their form to express *gender* and *number*. That is all, however; for they have no change to express *person*, *time*, *case*, or *mode*. Therefore, this is not a part of speech so full of difficulties as the *pronoun* and the *verb*. There are two things to attend to in using the adjective; first, to see that it *agrees* in *number* and *gender* with the noun to which it relates; and, next, to see that it be put in its *proper place*. As to the *agreement*, enough was said in the *Etymology*, except with regard

to one or two particular cases, which I am now about to notice. The adjective is put in the *plural*, though it relate to a *singular* noun, when that noun is a noun of multitude and followed by a plural noun in the possessive case; as:

La plupart des dames furent malheureuses,		The greater part of the ladies were unhappy.
--	--	---

and not

La plupart des dames fut mal- heureuse,		The greater part of the ladies was unhappy.
--	--	--

If *plupart* had not been followed by *des dames* (the noun in the possessive case), the adjective must have been in the singular:

La plupart fut malheureuse.

and not

La plupart furent malheureuses.

Another of the exceptions alluded to above, is this: adjectives are put in the plural when they relate to *more than one singular noun*. To be sure; for two or more singulars make a plural; as, Richard et Thomas sont *malades*, and not *malade*. This is the general rule; but when there are two singular nouns to which the adjective relates, and when these nouns have the same, or nearly the same, meaning, writers sometimes put the adjective in the singular. I merely mention this because it is a liberty that writers take; but I do not recommend you to take it. You *may* say:

Un goût et un discernement ex- cellent,		An excellent taste and discern- ment.
--	--	--

But it is better to say,

Un goût et un discernement excellens.

As to agreement in *gender*, you must observe, that, if

there be more than one noun to which the adjective relates, and if they be of *different genders*, the adjective must be put in the *masculine*; as:

La vache et le bœuf sont <i>bons</i>		The cow and the ox are <i>good</i> .
(not <i>bonnes</i>),		

But, if there be two or more nouns, one or more of which is a feminine, and if in such a case a feminine noun come *immediately* before the adjective, the adjective is, or at least may be, put in the *feminine*; as:

Le bœuf et la vache <i>blanche</i>		The white ox and cow.
(not <i>blancs</i>),		

And, observe, the adjective is put in the *singular*, too, in this case, though there are *two nouns* going before it. However, as it certainly would not be *incorrect* to say, le bœuf et la vache *blancs*, I should employ that phrase instead of the other. These exceptions, though worthy of notice, are but mere trifles. Nine hundred and ninety-nine times out of every thousand, the adjective must agree in number and gender with the noun or nouns to which it obviously relates.

373. Care must, therefore, be taken to put the adjective in its *proper place*. You have, as you have already been taught, first to take care that your adjective agree in *gender* and *number* with its *noun*. The next thing is the *proper place* for the adjective. You are speaking of a cow, for instance. You want to say, in French, that she is *brown*. You know that the singular number of the adjective is without an *s*; you know also, that the feminine of this adjective is *brune*, there being an *e* added to *brun*. But, you do not know where to *put* this adjective. You do not know whether it be to come before or after, the noun

vache. Observe, then, that adjectives which express colours are put *after* the noun; as, *vache brune*.

Also those that express *nationality*; as, *du drap Anglais*.

Also those that express *shape*; as, *chapeau rond*.

Also those that express the qualities or condition of the elements, or that relate to any natural productions; as, *de l'eau froide*.

Also those which end in *ic*, *ique*, and *if*; as, *un verbe passif*.

Also those ending in *able*; as, *un état misérable*.
[Though some of these may either follow or precede; as, *une personne aimable*, or *une aimable personne*.]

Also those ending in *esque*, *ile*, *ule*; as, *une pièce burlesque*.

Also the participles when they are used as adjectives; as, *un homme respecté*. [Or when they are derived from the verb; as, *un ouvrage divertissant*.]

374. Adjectives put *before* the noun are all those of number; as, *une porte*, *six carrosses*; *le premier bourg*, *le second village*. The Royal style, indeed, makes Henry *the Fourth*, Louis *the Eighteenth*, and so on. [It should be noticed that in speaking of Sovereigns, the French use the Cardinal number, and not the Ordinal, saying, *Henri Quatre*, and not *Quatrième*; Louis *Dix-huit*, and not *Dix-huitième*. So with the days of the month: it must be *le trois de Mars*, *le quatre de Juin*; and not *le troisième*, *le quatrième*: except with the first day, with which the ordinal number, *le premier*, must be used,

and the second day, which may be called either *le deux* or *le second*.]

'Also pronouns when they act the part of adjectives; as, *chaque* prune.

Also the following ones of very common use:

beau, bon, brave, cher, chétif, grand, gros, jeune, joli, mauvais, méchant, meilleur, moindre, petit, saint, vieux, vrai.

375. When there are two adjectives used with the same noun, you *may* sometimes put them before the noun; but you cannot do wrong in putting them after it. If there be more than two adjectives, they *must* follow the noun. There are some exceptions to these rules; but these are of no importance. If you attend well to the above, you will in a short time place your adjectives properly.

376. So much for the placing of the adjectives. We have three more things to attend to relating to this part of speech. The first of these is, that there are certain adjectives which, in French, require the preposition *de* before the *next noun, pronoun, or infinitive verb*; as, capable *de* tout; capable *d'*aller. Then there are other adjectives which require the preposition *à* before the next noun, pronoun, or infinitive; as, semblable *à* l'or. These adjectives are, however, too many in number to be inserted in a rule. If, at any time, you have a doubt about the matter, the Dictionary will put you right; for it has the *à*, or the *de*, placed after those adjectives that require these prepositions after them. [See paragraph 431, and the *Note* at the end of paragraph 454.]

377. The next thing is, that adjectives of dimension

come before the words which express the measure, and not after those words, as ours do; as:

Une rivière *large de trois cents pas*, | a river three hundred paces broad.
 Une tour *haute de soixante pieds*, | a tower sixty feet high.

The French, however, have other modes of expressing dimensions. They put the noun instead of the adjective; une rivière qui a trois cents pas *de largeur*. Thus they make use of *longueur* and of *hauteur*, leaving out the adjective altogether. However, this is no very important matter: one exercise of a dozen sentences is quite enough to prevent you from ever making a mistake in the use of these words of dimension.

378. Lastly comes COMPARISON; but that has been so fully explained before, in the paragraphs from 101 to 111, and again more recently in the use of *que* and *moins* and *plus* with the negatives, that it would be, I hope, a waste of time to say anything more upon the subject of comparison.

EXERCISE XIII.

1. The tower is four hundred and forty feet high.
2. Your room is twenty feet long and ten wide.
3. A square field and a high gate.
4. A saucy, lazy, and foolish man.
5. A young and fine ox, and a pretty little dog.
6. He is a great deal older than she is.
7. You are not so tall as he by a great deal.
8. They have more than six thousand acres of land.
9. This is a very bad hat; the worst I ever had in my life.
10. This is a better day than yesterday: but this is cold and miserable enough.
11. This is the worst road I ever saw.

12. That is the greatest rogue that exists.
13. Have you many bottles of wine in your cellar?
14. Give him a little wine and a few grapes.
15. I have not much oil, but I have a great many olives.
16. Has he not many horses and a great deal of hay?
17. Give me a few nuts, and bring a little of that sugar.
18. He is equally zealous in a good and in a bad cause.
19. Sixty thousand pounds for an estate and household goods.
20. One thousand eight hundred and twenty-four.
21. London, fourth of June, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-four.
22. George the Fourth and Charles the Tenth reign at this time.
23. I like an open enemy better than a secret one.
24. You are unworthy of honour and distinction.
25. He was overjoyed at seeing her arrive.
26. They are perfectly free from blame on that account.
27. He is fit for any sort of business.
28. They are given to all sorts of mischief.
29. We are subject to a legal process for your neglect.
30. He is a man very much esteemed in that country.
31. She is a French woman, he is an Englishman, she is an American woman.
32. A French hat, an English coat, an American shoe.
33. A black hat, a blue coat, white shoes.
34. White as snow, black as the chimney, heavy as lead.
35. You are taller than he by two inches.
36. I do not think that he is so tall as she.
37. They are the most wicked of all mankind.
38. It is the most unjust and most abominable of acts.

It should be noticed that there are some adjectives which have one sense when placed before the noun, and another sense when placed after it; as, *un homme honnête*, means a *civil* or well-behaved man; but *un honnête homme*, means an *honest* man. *Un grand homme*, means a man of great *merit*; but *un homme grand*, means a man of a great *size*. *Une femme sage*, means a *sensible and modest* woman; but *une sage femme*, means a *midwife*. However, there are very few adjectives that vary their meaning thus, and you will find little difficulty in the use of them. It is, nevertheless, a matter not to be disregarded. I know of no adjectives that thus change their meaning, except *bon*, *commun*, *mauvais*, *brave*, *certain*, *cruel*, *furieux*, *galant*, *gentil*, *grand*, *gros*, *honnête*, *pauvre*, *plaisant*, *sage*, *vilain*. There are some words, which some persons call adjectives, which are *indeclinable*; that is, which do not change their form to express number and gender. But these are, in fact, *adverbs*, and not adjectives: they express *place*, *time*, or *manner*, and not *quality* or *characteristic mark*.

LETTER XXIII.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

379. This, as you have been before told, is the most important of all the parts of speech. There can, as I have observed in my *English Grammar*, be no sentence; there can be no sense in words, unless there be *a verb*, either expressed or understood. Each of the other parts of speech may alternately be dispensed with, but the verb never can. This being the case, you will, I hope, set about the study of this Letter with an uncommon degree of resolution to be industrious and attentive.

380. You must, that you may have the whole subject clearly before you, that you may not drop abruptly into the middle of it, go back to paragraph 36, where I have described the **nature** and character and functions of the verb, and shown how it differs from other parts of speech. You must then go to paragraph 112, and read from that to paragraph 141 inclusive. When you have done that, and in a very attentive manner, cast your eye over the Conjugations; and then come to the subject of the present letter.

381. The parts of the Grammar which I have here referred to, teach you what a verb is, distinguish it from other parts of speech, show you all the variations of form to which it is liable, tell you how it changes that form to fit itself to divers circumstances; but it remains for me to tell you something about the

manner of *using it in sentences*, something about that *concord* and that *government*, which I mentioned in paragraph 247; something about when the verb is to be used in this number, and when in that number; when in this person, and when in that; when in this time, and when in that; and when in this mode, and when in that. I shall, therefore, place my matter under four heads: first, *The Number and Person*, because they depend one on the other; second, *The Times*; third, *The Modes*; fourth, *The Participles*.

382. THE NUMBER AND PERSON. The verb must have a noun or a pronoun used with it. The verb speaks of an action, a feeling, or a state of being of *some person* or *thing*; therefore there must be a noun or a pronoun to express that person or thing; and, whatever person and number that noun and pronoun may be in, the verb must be in the same person and number. This is what is called agreement, or concord. The ploughmen in Hampshire invariably say, *they walk*, and the like; and it is very curious that those of Norfolk and Suffolk as invariably say, *he walk*, and the like. The illiterate country people in France say, *j'allons* and *j'avons*. This is not to be expected from any person who has ever looked into a book; but, in writing French, we English people must take care, or else we shall fall into very gross errors of this sort.

383. When two or more nouns, or pronouns, are the nominative of the same verb, the verb is in the plural number, though each of the nouns and pronouns be in the singular number. They are taken together, and thus they make a plural, and, of course, the verb must be in the plural; as:

Le cheval, le bouc, et le chien *étaient* dans l'écurie,
The horse, the goat, and the dog *were* in the stable.

384. In French, as in English, two nouns or pronouns, with *ou* (or) between them, take the verb in the singular, because the *or*, though it connect them on the paper and in speech, disjoins them in sense; as:

Le seigle ou l'orge qui *est* dans le champ,
The rye or the barley that *is* in the field.

But in French, if the conjunction be not *ou*, the verb is generally in the plural; as:

Ni le seigle ni l'orge ne se *vendent* cher,
Neither the rye nor the barley *sells* dear.

Here, you see, the verb is in the plural in French, and in the singular in English. If there be several nouns, which are nominatives of the verb, and if there be one or more of them in the plural number, the verb must be in the plural, though some of the nouns may be in the singular; as:

Le maître ou ses gens *viendraient* demain, si. . .
The master or his people *would come* to-morrow, if. . .

This holds good in both languages; but if the last noun be in the singular, and be preceded by *mais* (but), the verb is put in the singular. This happens when there is *non-seulement* (not only), or some phrase of that meaning, in the former part of the sentence. It is, however, the same in both languages; and no error can well happen in the constructing of such sentences. But there is one difference in the two languages, respecting the number of the verb, that must be carefully attended to; it is this: we, in English, when we use a noun of *multitude*, such as *crowd*, *assembly*, *public*, or any other, may, as we please, consider the noun as a *singular* or a *plural*, and of course we may use, as

relating to such noun, pronouns and verbs in the singular or in the plural. This cannot be done in French. Whatever the noun is, the pronoun and the verb must agree with it. Examples:

<p><i>The crowd made a great noise,</i> <i>They were in the street,</i> or, <i>It was in the street,</i> <i>The public do not like that,</i> <i>They have rejected it,</i> or, <i>It has rejected it,</i></p>	} } }	<p><i>La foule faisait un grand bruit.</i> <i>Elle était dans la rue.</i> <i>Le public n'aime pas cela.</i> <i>Il l'a rejeté.</i></p>
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The French adhere to this even in the use of the word *people*. They say, as we do, *le peuple*; but they always make the word a *singular*, and give it singular pronouns and verbs. We, on the contrary, cannot very well use these singulars with *people*, though we, in speaking of *a nation*, sometimes say, *a people*. In other cases we make use of plurals with the word *people*, and the French never do; as:

The people *are* tired of being treated in that manner,
Le peuple *est* las d'être traité de la sorte.

*They will not be treated thus much longer,
Il ne souffrira pas qu'on le traite long-temps ainsi.*

The people have *their* follies; but *they* are not wicked,
Le peuple a ses folies; mais *il* n'est pas méchant.

Thus, you see, pronoun, verb, adjective, all are in the singular in French; and, in English, the two former are in the plural, and the latter has no change to express number. But there are some few exceptions to this; and those you will find particularly dwelt on in the Syntax of the *Relative Pronoun*, paragraph 316; and in the Syntax of the Adjective, paragraph 372. You must now read both those paragraphs very carefully over. Their contents belong to the *numbers of*

verbs, as well as to the heads under which they are placed.

385. When there are two or more pronouns, which are the nominative of the verb, and which are of different persons, the nominative must agree with the first person in preference to the second, and with the second in preference to the third. It is, however, the same in English; as, you and I *are* poor, *vous* et moi *sommes* pauvres. Mark, however, the manner of forming these phrases in French. You see there is a pronoun more here in French than in English:

Vous et moi *nous* irons à la campagne la semaine prochaine,
You and I shall go to the country next week.

Lui, Monsieur Lechamp, et moi *nous* *nous* en allons,
He, Mr. Lechamp, and I are going away.

Elle, vous et votre oncle *vous* alliez vous promener,
She and you and your uncle were going to take a walk.

Sentences of this sort may be turned thus:

Nous irons à la campagne *vous* et moi la semaine prochaine,
Vous alliez vous promener, elle, vous et votre oncle.

However, the verbs are in the plural in both languages; and that is the main thing that you have to attend to here. I might, in the Letter on Personal Pronouns, have spoken of this manner of using these pronouns; but I thought it would be best here, when I came to speak of the agreement between the pronoun and the verb. You see the additional pronoun is used to make all clear. Our mode of expression is not so unequivocal. Take an example:

He, she, and I have been very ill.

We understand this very well. We are *almost sure* that it is meant that *all three* have been sick; but it

really is not a point *beyond dispute*. The French say, therefore :

Lui, elle et moi *nous* avons été très malades,
He, she, and I *we* have been very ill.

And, to a certainty, this is a better mode of expression, because it is perfectly unequivocal.

[NOTE.—The examples from M. Restaut which are given in paragraph 316, touching the relative pronoun and the antecedent, should also be referred to in this place, because they equally have to do with the number of the verb. They are the examples beginning with the names *Cicero*, *Hégésiochus*, *Ctésias*, in which occur the verbs *être*, *travailler*, and *avoir*. Cobbett's *Grammar* has been criticised for not condemning the use of the verb in the singular number in all such cases; because while, in the first example,

Cicero fut un de ceux qui *furent*,

the verb is rightly in the plural, as having relation to the pronoun *ceux*, it ought, in the other sentences given, to have been

un de ceux qui *travaillèrent* (and not *travailla*),
un des premiers qui *aient* (and not *ait*);

and for the same reason, namely, that these two latter verbs have relation to the *ceux* and the *premiers*.

It has been said that to use the verb, as here, in the singular, is bad French, and that modern writers do not do it. No doubt it is strictly an error. Nevertheless, it is frequently seen with French writers to the present day. ROLLIN says,

“Amasis est le seul des rois d’Egypte qui *ait* conquis l’île de Cypre.” Amasis is the only king of Egypt who *has* subdued the Isle of Cyprus.

Here it is clear that the verb is correctly in the

singular, there having been but the one king who subdued, Amasis. Yet we find CHATEAUBRIAND writing,

<p>“ Mon pèlerinage au tombeau de Scipion est un de ceux qui a le plus satisfait mon cœur,”</p>	<p>My pilgrimage to the tomb of Scipio is one of those which <i>has</i> most gratified my feelings.</p>
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Properly, this should have been, in French as in English,

un de ceux qui ONT, | one of those which HAVE,

in the plural; and the error arises, obviously, from a certain degree of confusion which is occasioned by there being two antecedents, one singular and the other plural, our thoughts being most engaged with the former of the two.]

386. You will see that the verb is *placed in the sentence* much about in the same manner that ours is, when *nouns* are used with it: but when *pronouns* are used, very different is the manner of placing the French verb; of which, indeed, you have seen instances enough. When the verb has a noun or nouns as its *nominative*, its place is, as in English, after the noun; as, *le mouton mange l'herbe, l'oiseau vole dans l'air*. Thus it is also in English. But, in both languages, when a sentence is *thrown into* the middle of the main sentence, the verb goes first; as:

I will not give it to you, *said Richard*, unless you come after it,
Je ne vous le donnerai pas, *dît Richard*, à moins que vous ne veniez
le chercher.

This manner of using the verb is, in cases like this, the same in both languages. But the French sometimes put the verb before the noun when we do not, especially after *que* (whom, which, or that) and *comme* (as):

Le chien que *m'a vendu* le garde-chasse,
The dog that to me *has sold* the game-keeper.

This is word for word; but we say, the dog that the game-keeper *has sold me*. Take an example with *comme*:

Les choux, les asperges, et les oignons sont gâtés, comme *me dit* Richard,

The cabbages, the asparagus, and the onions are spoiled, as Richard *tells me*.

Again, the verb is frequently put after *où* (where, in which, in which place):

La campagne *où demeure* mon ami,
The country place *where* my friend *lives*.

L'endroit *où se cachent* les renards et les loups,
The place *where* the foxes and wolves *hide themselves*.

These are very common expressions with the French, who make wonderful use of this *se*, and especially with the verb *trouver* (to find), which they make use of instead of *être*, in innumerable instances; as:

I *am* very well,

How *is* he now?

We *are* very well here,

Je *me trouve* fort bien.

Comment *se trouve-t-il* maintenant.

Nous *nous trouvons* bien ici.

EXERCISE XIV.

1. We see such things as that every day.
2. Neither threats nor money will make him cease complaining of it.
3. The carpenters or the masons will finish their work to-morrow.
4. He or she will pay for the dinner and the wine.
5. It was they who said that she should go away.
6. Not only the oats and the hay, but the very straw was spoiled.
7. John, Paul, Stephen, Mary, and their mother will write to-morrow.
8. John, Paul, Stephen, Mary, and you will write to-morrow.

9. Your brother and she have read a great deal to-day.
10. My grandfather and I have travelled from one end of the country to the other.
11. The cucumbers and the melons grow well in that soil.
12. The gardener as well as his people like flowers.
13. It was very far from being good, as the gardener told me.
14. The piece of ground where the shrubs were planted.
15. The hedge where the thorns were growing.
16. The plantations that my grandfather made.
17. The house that the brother and sister live in.
18. The basket that the flowers had been put into.
19. The committee has been sitting this month.
20. They will not have finished for two months to come.
21. The people have been very quiet.
22. They have been exceedingly well used.
23. Nobody can deceive them.
24. The best way is always to tell them the truth.
25. He hates the people and always speaks evil of them.
26. I will give you a pound, said he, if you will tell me the truth.
27. Ah! said they, we have caught you, then.
28. No, answered I, you have not caught me.
29. Well, said he to them, say no more about it.
30. Go off as soon as you can, I beg of you.
31. She and I are the owners of that wood.
32. They wish to write to them.
33. Clover and sanfoin grow well in that land.
34. They are excellent for all sorts of cattle.

35. Turnips or mangel-wurzel is good for cows in winter.
36. Neither hay nor straw is sold in the town.
37. The greatest part of the world do thê same.
38. A great part of his friends left him.
39. The curious plants that my friend has given me.
40. The painter that my sister has sent.
41. The painter who has sent my sister.
42. The printer that the people like so much.
43. The printer who likes the people so much.
44. I plant lettuces and celery.
45. Give me some of both, if you please.

387. THE TIMES. You have just seen enough (for you have just been reading the Etymology of Verbs) of the *reason* for there being changes in the form of the verb to denote different times. You have seen enough also, and, I hope, know enough, of the manner of making those changes. You have now to learn when one of the TIMES is to be used, and when another; for, as you have seen, there are *two past times* in French: and besides this, the French do not, in all cases, use their times so as to answer to the corresponding times in English.

388. Time is, and must be, *present, past, or future*. To express the *present*, we, in English, have three forms; as,

I find,	} je trouve,
I do find,	
I am finding,	

The French have only this one form to answer to the whole of the three. We, from our infancy, learn to distinguish with the greatest nicety the import of one of our forms from that of either of the other two; but,

in the present case, we are happy in having to do with a language which has but one present time at any rate :

I am <i>writing</i> a letter,	J'écris une lettre.
Indeed I <i>do write</i> letters every day,	En vérité j'écris des lettres tous les jours.
I <i>write</i> to my friends very often,	J'écris fort souvent à mes amis.

It is, you see, always *écris*. This is very easy, then? Yes, much too easy to last long. Every blockhead would learn French, if all were as easy as this.

389. The French have *two past times*. We have, in our past time, the *do* and the *ing*; that is to say, the *do* become *did*, and, in the above example, the *am* become *was*; as, I *was* writing; I *did* write; I *wrote*. Ay, but the French have *two distinct sets of words* to express the past by. Look now again, for a moment, at the conjugation of TROUVER, in paragraph 118. There you see, that, in what they call the *past imperfect time*, I found, is, je *trouvais*, and, in the *past perfect time*, I found, is, je *trouvai*. In the other persons of the verb, the change is greater: so great indeed as for the words to appear not to belong at all to one another. Nous TROUVIONS is the past imperfect, and nous TROUVÂMES the past perfect. Now, mind, each of these means WE FOUND.

390. Well, but as they mean the same thing, cannot they be used *indifferently*? Indeed they cannot; for, though we express them, in English, by the same word, they have a meaning, in French, clearly distinct from each other. To know when one of them is to be employed, and when the other, attend very earnestly to what I am now going to say. But, first of all, let me, in an extract from a French history, show you how these two past times are used. I shall give the

translation. It is an account of an explosion in the fortified town of VERDUN in France :

Le 18 Novembre, 1727, le moulin à poudre, construit dans cette ville, *sauta* en l'air, par la faute, dit on, d'un ouvrier, qui *fesait* sécher de la poudre dans une poêle. Les effets en *furent* affreux. La terre *s'enfonça* en cet endroit de plus de quinze pieds: l'hémisphère *parut* tout en feu, et la terre *trembla* à plus de deux lieues à la ronde. Cet accident *abattit* de fond en comble cinquante maisons des environs. Tout ce qui s'y *trouva*, hommes, femmes, enfans, domestiques, *fut* écrasé sous les ruines. Il y *eut* soixante-dix autres maisons fort endommagées, dont aucune n'a pu être habitée avant de l'avoir réparé. Il y *en eut* d'autres encore, en grand nombre, dont les portes *furent* arrachées de leurs gonds, quoique fermées à clefs et à verrous; et tous les vitrages de la ville-basse *furent* fracassés. Il y *eut* aussi des marques de la violence de ce coup dans la ville-haute, et dans la citadelle, quoiqu'éloignée de plus de six cents toises du lieu où le moulin *était* construit. Outre les maisons bourgeoises il y *eut* trois églises paroissiales, et divers couvents endommagés considérablement, ainsi que l'hôpital général, et celui des soldats. Les Dames de la Congrégation *furent* les plus maltraitées, leurs dortoirs ayant été renversés, pendant qu'elles *étaient* à Complies. La quantité de poudre, qui *prit* feu, *consistait* en quatre milliers de poudre fine, et six milliers de poudre commune.

On the 18th November, 1727, the powder-mill, built in this town, *blew up*, from the fault, it is said, of a workman who *was drying* some powder in a frying-pan. The effects *were* dreadful. The ground at the place itself *was forced* down more than fifteen feet: the hemisphere *seemed* all on fire, and the ground *shook* for more than two leagues round. This accident *knocked down*, from top to bottom, fifty houses of the neighbourhood. All who *were* in them, men, children, servants, *were* crushed under the ruins. There *were* seventy other houses very much damaged, not one of which could be inhabited until repaired. Besides these, there *were* others in great number, the doors of which *were* torn from their posts, although locked and bolted; and all the windows in the lower-town *were* smashed to pieces. There *were* also marks of the violence of this shock in the upper-town and in the citadel, though at more than six hundred fathoms from the spot where the mill *stood*. Besides the houses of the town's-people, there *were* three parish churches and divers convents considerably damaged, as well as the general hospital, and that of the soldiers. The Nuns of the Congregation *were* the most roughly handled, their dormitories being shaken in while they *were* at Evening Prayers. The quantity of powder that *took* fire *consisted* of four thousand weight of fine, and six thousand weight of common.

391. The verbs, you will perceive, are put in *Italic* characters. We will, when we have laid down the rules, see how the use of the verbs agrees with those rules. MONSIEUR RESTAUT has the following passage upon this subject. I shall translate it entire; because it will be useful as the groundwork of my observations, and because it will enable us to see how the above practice squares with the rules of this able grammarian.

392. MONSIEUR RESTAUT says: "The *prétérit* (past perfect) time points out a thing passed, and passed, too, in a time no part of which remains, and in which we no longer are; as, JE FUS MALADE L'ANNÉE DERNIÈRE. It is essential to observe, that we ought not to make use of this past time to denote any time which is not further back than the day in which we are talking. So that we must not say, JE FUS MALADE CE MATIN. We must say, J'AI ÉTÉ malade ce matin. Also, we must not use the past perfect in speaking of *this year*, this century; nor of any time, any part of which remains yet to pass away." To this he adds, that "the past perfect time must, *on no account*, be employed except as applied to a time *absolutely completely passed*; whereas, there are many cases in which *it is not a fault* to use, instead of the past perfect, the compound of the present; as, Alexandre FUT le plus grand capitaine de son siècle; or, Alexandre *a été* le plus grand capitaine de son siècle."

393. Now, how does this agree with the above passage? Read that passage attentively, and look at, and compare with one another, the several verbs in it. It is very true that the year 1727 is wholly gone and

past; that no part of it remains; that we are no longer in it. Therefore it is very right, of course, to say,

<i>sauta en l'air, s'enfonça, parut en feu, s'y trouva, fut écrasé,</i>	$\left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{l} \text{ } \end{array}} \right\}$	and not	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ } \end{array} \right.$	<i>sautait en l'air. s'enfonçait. paraissait en feu. s'y trouvait. étaient écrasés.</i>
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This is all very right, and according to the rules of MONSIEUR RESTAUR, who has said, as I have just quoted, and who says, with regard to the *imperfect*, that it is to be used to denote the past with regard to the present; and that it designates that a thing *was present* in a time that is now past; as, "I WAS at table *when you came*. My being at table is *now past*, but this manner of using the verb points out, "that it *was present* when you arrived."

394. So far all is very well; and it is easy enough for you to know *one case* when the imperfect ought to be used; namely, when we use the *active participle* and the verb *to be* in the past time; I *was* at table, that is, *sitting* at table, when you arrived. Thus you see very clearly why "*fesait sécher*" was put, instead of *fit sécher*, in the first sentence of the above extract; for this is the translation:

Un ouvrier qui <i>fesait sécher</i> de la poudre dans une poêle,	A workman who <i>was drying</i> some powder in a frying-pan.
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Here is the active participle and the past time of the verb *to be*. But in the last sentence of this passage there is the verb *consistait*. You cannot say, *was consisting*. How will MONSIEUR RESTAUR here make out something that was present when another thing happened, which other thing is now passed also? But, stop; here is another verb in the same sentence, and

in the *past perfect* too. “La quantité de poudre, qui *prit feu, consistait* en quatre milliers de poudre fine.” Why, then, I ask, have we *prit* instead of *prenait*? Or, why have we *consistait* instead of *consista*? You cannot turn *consistait* into *was consisting*, any more than you can turn *prit feu* into *was taking fire*. The time, observe, is quite past. It is entirely gone. We are no longer in it. The verb *consistait* cannot be turned into *was consisting*; and yet it is in the *imperfect time*.

395. The rules are, then, defective. The instructions are not clear. The distinctions are obscurely stated. First, it is clear enough that the *imperfect*, or (which is a much better word) the *unfinished* form of the French verb, must always be used when we can turn the phrase into English by the active participle and the verb *to be*; when we can turn it into English by the verb and our word *used*; or, when we can turn it into English by the help of any word, signifying the *habit* of doing or being; as:

I *was planting* peas yesterday, when.
I wrote to him *every week*,
I *was in the habit* of going thither,
They *continued* there for six years,
I *used* to eat a good deal of sugar,

je *plantais* des pois hier, quand..
je lui *écrivais* toutes les semaines.
j'*avais* coutume d'y aller.
ils y *restaient* pendant six ans.
je *mangeais* beaucoup de sucre.

But when you can discover none of these English marks of a demand for the *imperfect*, or *unfinished*, form of the verb, observe this; that we sometimes make use of the past time of the verb, without having any intention to mark *any time at all*; but to point out a fact; a fact, indeed, relating to a past time, but the time being, nevertheless, of *no importance*; as:

The Jews were a wicked race;
they were seditious and avaricious,

les Juifs *étaient* une méchante race;
ils *étaient* séditeux et avarés.

on to be, a bad race of people; but here is nothing *finished*, nothing brought to a *close*; and that, mind, is necessary to justify the use of the *past perfect time*.

396. Look again at the above quoted passage, and at the sentence before the last. There are two verbs in that sentence, the first in the *past perfect*, the last in the *past imperfect*. “Les dames de la Congrégation *furent* les plus maltraitées, leurs dortoirs ayant *été renversés* pendant qu’elles *étaient* à Complices.” Here are *furent* and *étaient* in the same sentence, and applying to the same persons. But if you look well into the matter, the reason is as clear as daylight. *Furent* relates to a matter *done with, finished, completely over*, and that, too, in a past time. But in that same past time the ladies *were at* their Complices, or Evening Prayers; elles *étaient* à Complices: their dormitories were demolished *while they were at* Prayers. The prayers were, in the time spoken of, *going on*; but the dormitories were done for: the misfortune of the ladies was *over*.

397. Let us take another instance. “SEDAN (a town of France) *était* autrefois une petite Souveraineté, de laquelle *dépendaient* dix-sept villages. Elle *appartenait* anciennement aux archevêques de Rheims, un desquels *l’échangea* avec le Roi pour “Cormicy.” Now, you see, *était autrefois*, and *appartenait* and *dépendaient* all include the idea of *continuation*. This little district *was formerly* a lordship. We might say, that it *used to be* a lordship. We might also say, that the villages *used to depend* upon it, and that it *used to belong* to the archbishops of Rheims. But (and now mind) we could not say that one of these bishops *used to exchange* it with the king. That was

an act *done, finished, not going on*; not spoken of as being (in the past time alluded to) in a *state of being continued*.

398. Now the matter clears up. We begin to see the *reason* for this distinction in the past time; for, if you can, by a change in the ending of the verb, discover at once whether an act was finished or was going on, at a certain time, it is a great advantage. You can now see, I think, the reason for employing *consistait*, as mentioned in paragraph 394, and also for using *prit* in the same sentence. “La poudre, qui *prit* feu, “*consistait* en quatre milliers.” Why not, said I, put *consista* as well as *prit*? You could now, I hope, tell me why: namely, because the taking of fire was a thing *done with*. The fire took, the mill blew up, and there was an end. The matter was *finished* in the past time alluded to. But, mind, the powder’s *consisting* of such a quantity was a matter without any limit as to time. It had *consisted for some time*; its *consisting had been going on*. There had been *continuation* in it; and, therefore, the writer could not say *consista*. Take two more instances, and then, I think, I may leave this matter:

Il l’aimait long-temps, et à la fin
il l’épousa,
Hier, qui était dimanche, il alla
à l’église,

He loved her for a long time, and
at last he married her.
Yesterday, which was Sunday, he
went to church.

Here, you see again, there is *continuation* in the *loving* and in the *Sunday*; but none in the act of marrying nor in that of going to church. But,

Elle l’accosta comme il allait à
l’église,

| She accosted him as he was going
to church.

Here, you see, the case is different. His going to

Foreigners have great difficulty in learning when they ought to use *will* and when *shall*. Those who learn French have no such difficulty.

I *shall put* my hand in my pocket, }
I *will put* my hand in my pocket, } je mettrai la main dans ma poche.

And thus it is always. If, however, *shall* is used to denote *obligation*, and *will* to denote *determination*, they must be answered in another way, as we shall see by-and-by; but, as far as simply declaring or stating goes, the above is the manner of rendering the English future into French.

402. I have said, and well I may, that time must be *present*, *past*, or *future*; yet some grammarians have contrived to find, in French and English, a great many more times than three; or, at least, states of the verb which they call *times*. It may, in some languages, be necessary to make those numerous distinctions under the name of *times*. In French and English it is not only unnecessary, but it produces great confusion, and tends greatly to bewilder and disgust the learner, whether of English or of French. I will give you an instance of this, and will keep to our old verb TROUVER.

je trouve,	<i>present,</i>	}	I find.
je trouvais,	<i>past imperfect,</i>		I found,
je trouvai,	<i>past perfect,</i>		
je trouverai,	<i>future,</i>		I shall find.

j'ai trouvé,	<i>the past indefinite,</i>	}	I have found.
j'avais trouvé,	<i>the more perfect,</i>		
j'eus trouvé,	<i>the past perfect anterior,</i>		I had found.
j'aurai trouvé,	<i>the future anterior,</i>		I shall have found.

It is in the grammar of MONSIEUR DE LÉVIZAC that I find these pretty names given to *times*. The *two forms* for the *past times* are, as we have seen, necessary in

French, and they must, of course, have *two names*. But of what use are the four names here placed *under the line*? What are these times, after *all, more than those above the line*? Above the line, you have the changes in TROUVER to mark the four times; and below the line, you have the changes in AVOIR to mark the same four times. If, indeed, TROUVER changed its form here *eight* times instead of four, it would be necessary to have eight names to distinguish them by. But, as it is, the four additional names only serve to puzzle, retard, and disgust the scholar.

403. In paragraphs from 125 to 128, I have fully explained the offices of AVOIR and ÊTRE, as auxiliary verbs. When they are used with the verb, the several times are said to be *compound*, which they are, because they consist of more than one thing: thus, *I have found* is the compound of the present time; because *have* belongs to one verb, and *found* to another. Why, then, not call these times the compound of the *present*, of the *past*, and of the *future*?

I have found,

I had found,

I shall have found,

j'ai trouvé.

j'avais, or j'eus trouvé.

j'aurai trouvé.

It is, you see, the verb *to have*, used in all its times with the *passive participle* of the principal verb (*trouver*) coming after it. It is, in fact, a mere conjugation of the verb *to have*, with that participle always coming after it.

404. But, as you have seen in paragraph 132, the *compound times* are formed with *être*, and not with *avoir*, when the verb is reflected. And observe also, that *été*, the passive participle of *être*, is, as in English, sometimes, and very frequently, used along with *avoir*

and the passive participle of the principal verb; as, *j'ai été trouvé*, I have been found. This may be called the *compound of the passive*; that is all. The verb *avoir* is conjugated throughout all its times, and the two passive participles come after it. Now, let us see an instance of each of these that I have been speaking of in the three foregoing paragraphs.

I find,		<i>je trouve.</i>
I found,		<i>je trouvais, or trouvai.</i>
I shall find,		<i>je trouverai.</i>
I have found,		<i>j'ai trouvé.</i>
I had found,		<i>j'avais, or j'eus, trouvé.</i>
I shall have found,		<i>j'aurai trouvé.</i>
I have been found,		<i>j'ai été trouvé.</i>
I had been found,		<i>j'avais, or j'eus été trouvé.</i>
I shall have been found,		<i>j'aurai été trouvé.</i>

405. As to the times of the *Subjunctive Mode*, all that has here been said holds good with regard to them. Time is always present, past, or future; and there can be no need of imagining other times, and giving names to them. When the times are *compound*; that is to say, when *avoir*, or (in reflected verbs) *être*, comes into use, you are to take it, and conjugate it instead of the principal verb, the passive participle of which you are to add all the way through, as you see it done in the six last of the nine examples just given you. But, mind, you are to conjugate the compound times with *être*, instead of *avoir*, in a few *neuter* verbs, as well as in all the reflected verbs. These neuter verbs are, *accourir, aller, aborder, arriver, choir, décéder, descendre, devenir, entrer, monter, mourir, naître, partir, passer, rester, retourner, revenir, sortir, tomber, venir*. Thus you must say, *je suis entré dans la chambre*, and not *j'ai entré dans la chambre*.

bonne [and the latter is the most common]; but we must say, the crop *was* good. But, on the other hand, we can apply the past time to a period not ended; as, she *was* here *this morning*; whereas, as we have seen, the French cannot apply their past time to a period not ended.

407. When there is no time at all specified or cared about, we can, in both languages, make use of the compound of the present; as:

We *have seen* evil enough, | Nous *avons vu* assez de mal.

The reason is, that *in our lives*, *in our time*, *in our day*, or something denoting a period not passed, is understood; as, he *has read* much, *il a lu* beaucoup: but in this respect the two languages are very nearly alike.

408. There is one thing more to point out, but it is of importance. The French frequently make use of the present of the verb *être* instead of the compound of *avoir* and *être*.

Il y a un mois que le vent <i>est</i> à l'Est,	It is a month that the wind <i>is</i> in the East.
Elle <i>est</i> depuis plus d'un mois hors de chez elle,	She <i>is</i> more than a month from home.
Il y a plus d'un an que je <i>suis</i> malade,	It is more than a year that I <i>am</i> sick.
Je <i>suis</i> depuis dix jours en route,	I <i>am</i> ten days on my journey.

This is a word-for-word translation, as nearly as I can well make it. Now, we never express ourselves thus: we say,

The wind *has been* in the East for a month.
 She *has been* more than a month from home.
 I *have been* sick more than a year.
 I *have been* ten days on my journey.

The French may use the same form, and they frequently do: as, Il y a un mois que le vent *a été* à l'Est; j'*ai été* malade il y a plus d'un an.

[NOTE.—As to the two past times of the verb, in the

compound form, there is a pretty certain rule by which to use the one or the other. Neither can be used without our having in view two circumstances, of action or occurrence, each having reference to the other in point of time. And therefore it is that these forms of the verb are almost always accompanied by an adverb or conjunction denoting a point of time, such as *quand, lorsque, pas plus tôt, dès que, aussitôt que, à peine que, après que*. The rule is, that if what you express in the compound form is that which it is your principal object to say, the compound must be that of the *past imperfect*; and if, on the contrary, the expression with the compound is but as an incident to, or merely bearing a relation, in the way of time, to your main subject, then it must be the *past perfect*. For example:

J'*avais trouvé* le mouton quand
vous êtes arrivé,
Au *sitôt* que je l'*eus trouvé*, je
m'en allai,

I *had found* the sheep when you
arrived.
As soon as I *had found* it, I
went away.

In the first instance, the finding of the sheep is the main thing to be told, and the arrival is mentioned only as an incidental occurrence. In the second, the going away is the principal subject spoken of, and the finding is but the incident, with reference to the time of which the going has occurred. Observation in reading French will show this to be the rule. And it applies, of course, to the auxiliaries, *avoir* and *être*, in distinguishing their two compounds, *j'avais eu* and *j'eus eu*, *j'avais été* and *j'eus été*.—There is another compound of the past which Grammarians speak of as rarely employed. We find it, however, in practice. It is formed by the compound of the auxiliary *avoir*, in its

present, past imperfect, or past perfect time, together with the participle passive of the principal verb. Thus, instead of *j'ai trouvé, j'avais trouvé, j'eus trouvé*, the French sometimes say *j'ai eu trouvé, j'avais eu trouvé, j'eus eu trouvé*; and so on.]

EXERCISE XV.

1. The guide who conducted the observer, from whom I had the description, told him that, some time before the war which closed with the peace of Ryswick, having guided the Germans to this spot, they found it covered with snow.
2. The palace was a temple dedicated to the tutelary gods. Its form was oblong, and it had eight columns on each side longways, and four along each end, which made up the number of twenty-four; of which eight remained when they were taken down in order to enlarge the castle.
3. The fountain which is called d'Audège sends forth so large a quantity of water that it forms a rivulet, very useful to the tanners who live in the suburbs.
4. Do you study well, and do you not neglect any part of your duty?
5. When he has finished building his house, he will go to the country.
6. When she goes to town she will find a great many friends very glad to see her.
7. Every thing is to be done that can be done for him.
8. He has been very ill-used by those who owed him a great deal.
9. She was very sick: she suffered exceedingly. They did all they could to comfort her.

10. He has been to the church.
11. She fell from the top of the house.
12. They went away last year.
13. We have not been to see the play.
14. He went to bed at ten o'clock last night.
15. He had gone to bed earlier.
16. They rise early.
17. We rose every morning at four o'clock.
18. You ought to rise much earlier than you do.

409. THE MODES. Now, though you, at the beginning of this Letter; that is to say, at the beginning of your study of the *Syntax of Verbs*; though you read throughout the *Etymology* of verbs, yet these *Modes* are a matter of so much importance that you must once more read paragraphs 116 and 117; and read them, too, with very great attention.

410. As I have there observed, the modes would be a matter of less consequence if the French verbs did not *change their form* in order to accommodate themselves to the different modes, or, at least, if this were not so frequently the case; but, as you will find, it is almost always the case. In English we say, I make, I must make; but in French we must say, *je fais*, *il faut que je fasse*. Ours is *make* in both cases; but in French it is *fais* in one case and *fasse* in the other. If you were, in translating I *make*, to say, *je fasse*; or, in translating I *must* make, to say, *il faut que je fais*, French people would hardly understand you; they might guess at your meaning, but that would be all. They would not laugh outright at you, as we generally do at the French people when they speak broken English, but they would laugh to themselves. This is, then, an affair of great consequence.

411. You have just read (in paragraph 116) a description of the *four Modes*. I need not, if you have read that paragraph and the next, describe those modes again. What I have now to do is, to teach you when the one is employed and when the other. The INFINITIVE, as being the root of the verb, stands first in the conjugations; but I shall speak of it last. I shall take the other three in their due order; the INDICATIVE, the SUBJUNCTIVE, and the IMPERATIVE.

412. But before I speak of the manner of using these modes, let me again caution you not to look upon the *signs* of our verbs, *as you see them placed in the conjugations*: let me caution you not to look upon those signs, I mean *should*, *could*, *would*, *may*, and *might*, as being to be translated upon all occasions *as you see them translated in the conjugations*. I have, indeed, in these conjugations, put only *shall*, *may*, *should*, and *might*, for want of room for the others. The danger is, that, seeing *should*, for instance, placed against a certain time in a certain mode, you will conclude, that our *should* must *always be translated in that manner*. That is not the case; and, therefore, you must take care not to adopt this notion of the matter. It was necessary to place some signs before our verbs in the conjugations: those which I have there placed do, in certain cases, answer, with their verb, to the verb against which they are placed; but, mind, they do not thus answer in all cases; and this you must take care not to forget.

413. We are to begin now with the INDICATIVE MODE. As you have before been told, it simply *indicates* or *declares*, as its name imports. It does not express an action or state of being, which is de-

pendent on any other action or state of being. It is the unconditional state of the verb, affirming or denying, without, as our saying is, "any of your *ifs* and *ands*;" as:

I go to London,	je vais à Londres.
I do not go to London,	je ne vais pas à Londres.

These verbs are in the indicative: but, if there be a *dependence*, a *condition*, a something *subjoined*, the verb is in the subjunctive; as:

Il importe que j' <i>aille</i> à Londres,	it is of consequence for me to go to London.
Il importe que je n' <i>aille</i> pas à Londres,	it is of consequence for me not to go to London.

Here, you see, is a *consequence* attached to the thing expressed by the verb. There is something *subjoined*, or *joined on*, to the simple act of going, or not going, to London. Accordingly, you see that the verb changes its form. *ALLER* (to go) is, you know, an *irregular* verb. Look at the conjugation of it in paragraph 203. You there see that *vais* is the first person singular of the indicative, and that *aille* is the first person singular of the subjunctive. There are, perhaps, a hundred words in the indicative for one in the subjunctive. The *Infinitive* is attended with little difficulty, and the *Imperative* with less. The great thing, then, as to the modes, is to know when we ought to put the verb in the subjunctive. The indicative may be said to be the *rule*, and the subjunctive the *exception*. The exception is, however, very extensive; but there are rules relating to it, and those rules we are now going to see. In English we have no change, or very little, in the form of the verb, to distinguish the subjunctive from the indicative; but, if we had, the guide would not be

perfect: for it is not always that a French verb in the subjunctive is properly translated by an English verb in *the same mode*.

414. THE SUBJUNCTIVE must always be used *after certain conjunctions*, which are said to *govern* that mode. But, first of all, it is best to seek for some *principle*; for, even if we fall short of perfection in principle, the very effort does something for us. We have seen that the subjunctive is used where there is *dependence* on some other act or state of being. It is also used generally when *passion, desire, or strong feeling* is expressed; as, *je veux qu'il s'en aille*, I *wish* him to go away; or, literally, I *will* that he himself from this go. Verbs also denoting joy, sorrow, doubt, fear, suspicion, permission, and prohibition, take the subjunctive. The verb *permettre*, for instance, causes the one that follows it to be in the subjunctive: as, "*permettez que je vous le dise*," "permit me to *tell* it *you*." If this last verb, *dire*, tell, were in the indicative, it would be *dis*; but, being in the subjunctive, it is *dise*. Now, observe:

Vous <i>savez</i> que je le <i>dis</i> ,	you <i>know</i> that I <i>say</i> it.
Vous <i>permettez</i> que je le <i>dise</i> ,	you <i>permit</i> me to <i>say</i> it.
Vous <i>jurez</i> qu'elle le <i>fait</i> ,	you <i>swear</i> that she <i>does</i> it.
Vous <i>désirez</i> qu'elle le <i>fasse</i> .	you <i>desire</i> that she <i>may do</i> it.

Here, you see, are *dis* and *dise*, *fait* and *fasse*, only because *savez* and *jurez* govern the indicative, and *permettez* and *désirez* the subjunctive. You see, too, that there is a twisting in our English; we do not say after *permit* and *desire* what we say after *know* and *swear*. After *desire* we have a real subjunctive; *may do*.

415. A dictionary explaining the governing of the

subjunctive should be resorted to here. When you are going to use a verb (until you know them all), look to see whether it govern the subjunctive. If it do, the verb which it so governs must be put in the subjunctive mode.

416. The subjunctive mode has, in almost every instance, *que* before it. Sometimes it has *qui*, but not often. However, the use of these words is not confined to this mode by any means; so that you are not to suppose that a verb is in the subjunctive merely because it may have *que* or *qui* before it.

417. The French subjunctive in the present time, is very often used to answer to the English future of the indicative; as:

Craignez-vous qu'elle ne *meure*?
Croyez-vous qu'elle le *fasse*?
Pensez-vous qu'il *vienne*?

| Do you fear that she will die?
Do you believe that she will do it?
Do you think that he will come?

A great deal of attention and a great deal of writing, will very soon put you in possession of a knowledge of this matter. You see that there is, in all these cases, more or less of *uncertainty*, of doubt, of fear, of something creating a *dependence* of one verb upon the other. After all, there must, as to the examples just given, be something left to be acquired by experience, by the habit of reading, writing, and speaking; for while you may say, and indeed must say, "*croyez-vous qu'elle le fasse*;" you must, if the first verb be in any time but the present or the future of the indicative, put the second verb in the past perfect of the subjunctive; as:

Croyiez-vous qu'elle le fût,

| Did you think that she did it.

and not

, >

Croyiez-vous qu'elle le fasse.

Because *croyiez* is not in the *present*, nor in the *future*, of the indicative. There are certain *pronouns* and

conjunctions which, with *que* after them, govern the subjunctive mode. The pronouns are *quelque*, *quoique*, and *quels-que*, when these words bear the sense of *whatsoever*, *whatever*, or *however*. This mode is also used after *si*, when *si* means *so*, or *so much of*; or when *si* has any such comparative meaning, and when it is followed by *que*. Also after *quoique*, *although*.

Quelque riches qu'elles *soient*,
 Quoique vous *soyez* riche,
 Quels que *soient* les voyageurs,
 Quelques arbres qu'on *puisse* avoir,
 Quelque *vieille* qu'elle *fût*,
 Quoi qu'il en *soit*,
 Quelles-que *fussent* ses sœurs,
 Quoi qu'on en *dise*, il en mourra,
 Si vous y allez et que vous y *restiez*,
 Elle n'est pas si prudente qu'elle ne
fasse jamais de faute,
 Ils n'étaient pas si généreux qu'ils *don-*
nassent tout leur bien,

However rich they may be.
 Though you may be rich.
 Whoever the travellers may be.
 Whatever trees they may have.
 However old she might be.
 However it may be; or be it as it may.
 Whatever his sisters might be. [of it.
 Whatever people may say, he will die
 If you go there and remain there.
 She is not so prudent that she never
 commits a fault.
 They were not so generous that they
 gave all their property.

418. There are certain Adjectives which, with *il est* (impersonal) before them, require the subjunctive mode after them; or, as it is called, they *govern* the subjunctive mode. I do not like to insert *lists of words*: it is the business of the *Dictionary* to do that. But as the *Dictionary* does not always place against these Adjectives the fact that they, with *il est* before them, govern the subjunctive, I shall insert these Adjectives here. They are as follows:

agréable,	dur,	injuste,
ai-é,	disgracieux,	juste,
afligeant,	ennuyeux,	malheureux,
à propos,	étonnant,	mal-ai-é,
bienséant,	facile,	mieux (with <i>vaut</i> before it),
beau,	fâcheux,	mortifiant,
chagrinant,	glorieux,	nécessaire,
cruel,	gracieux,	possible,
expédient,	heureux,	plaisant,
dangereux,	honteux,	sensible,
difficile,	important,	surprenant,
divertissant,	impossible,	triste,
doux,	indifférent,	vilain,
douloureux,		

These must have the *il est* before them to make them require the subjunctive after them. Some of them may always have *c'est* instead of *il est*; for you may say, *il est* impossible qu'il aille; or, *c'est* impossible; but, at any rate, you can always use *c'est* if you employ the word *chose*; as:

Il est possible que cela soit,
Que cela soit c'est une chose possible, } It is possible that that may be.

When I say, the Impersonal *il est*, I mean *il* with some part of the verb *être*. It may be *il est*, or *il était*, or *il sera*, as we have seen in the Letter on Impersonal Verbs. [See paragraph 357.] You know this already, but it is not amiss to remind you of it. We, in English, do not use this manner of expression, except with some of these adjectives; or, rather, with our own adjectives that answer to these. We say, "it is *possible* that that may be;" but we do not say, "it is *shameful* that that *may be*." In this case we may say *should be*. It is therefore necessary to attend to the above rule. Write this list of adjectives down ten or twenty times, and you will seldom forget them afterwards. To fix a thing well in the memory, there is nothing equal to the putting of it into writing.

419. But, besides these Adjectives, there are certain *nouns* and *conjunctions* which also govern the subjunctive mode. They, like the Adjectives, all have a meaning that makes us perceive, that there is a *dependence* of one act, or state of being, on another act, or state of being. The nouns are: *bienséance*, *nécessité*. These take the *il est* also; and they take the article; *d'une nécessité*, *de la bienséance*. Then there are *moyen*, *honneur*, *deshonneur*, *honte*, *gloire*,

with the article before them preceded by *il y a*; as, "il n'y a pas moyen qu'elle fasse cela."

420. You have seen instances enough, already, of *il faut* requiring the subjunctive mode. *Importer* is a verb which means to *signify*, or to *be of consequence*, or, as we say sometimes, to *matter*. To *signify* is, in French, *signifier*; but they do not use this verb very often to answer to *our signify*. They do not employ it commonly to express *mattering*, or *being of consequence*. They use the verb *faire*, in some cases, and the verb *importer*, in others; and in this case *importer* requires the subjunctive after it; as, "il importait qu'ils le fissent," and not "qu'ils le firent."

Il importe que vous soyez sobre,

Il importe que nous ayons du pain,

it is of consequence that you should be sober.

it is of consequence that we should have bread.

This verb *importer*, when used with *il* before it, is of great use in French. No expression in the whole language is more common than *N'IMPORTE*; and this answers to our *NO MATTER*. This word *importer* is, mind, a verb which is used in all its times, like another verb; but we are now speaking of it in its capacity of impersonal, used with *que* after it, and governing the subjunctive mode:

Il importe qu'elle vienne,

Il n'importait pas qu'ils vinssent,

Importe-t-il qu'il aille?

Il n'importe pas que nous allions,

Qu'importe cela ?

or,
Qu'est-ce que cela fait ?

it is of consequence that she should come.

it was of no consequence whether they came or not.

is it of any consequence whether he go or no ?

it is of no consequence whether we go or not.

of what consequence is that ? or, what matters that ? or, what signifies that ?

These two last examples do not belong, properly, to our present subject, because they do not include a

subjunctive; but having this word *importer* in hand, and knowing how much it is in use, it was right to dwell thus upon it. The phrases, *of no consequence, do not signify, is no matter, what signifies?* are, as you know, of very common use in English. Those phrases which answer to them must, of course, be of very common use in French; and, therefore, it is of great importance, it is absolutely necessary, for you to learn how these phrases are expressed in French. The French have, as well as we, the nouns *consequence* and *matter*, and the verb *to signify*; and they write them thus: *conséquence, matière, signifier*. We are, therefore, apt (and indeed we always do it till we learn better) to use the words *consequence, matter, and signify*, in French, in these cases; and this is a very great error. A few examples will make this matter plain to you; and will, I hope, prevent you from making, in such cases, literal translations of the English into French:

That is of no consequence,
That does not signify,
That is no matter,
What does that signify?

cela n'est de point de conséquence.
cela ne signifie pas.
cela n'est point de matière.
qu'est ce que cela signifie?

This is a literal translation as nearly as possible; and a Frenchman would certainly not comprehend you. He might guess at the meaning, but that would be all. The *fourth* French phrase is, indeed, good French; but it does not mean what it is here intended to mean. The French verb *signifier*, though it sometimes answers to our verb *signify*, does not answer to it in this sense. In English *signify* has two meanings; one is *to mean*, and the other *to be of consequence*; and it is not used in this latter sense in French; therefore, “*Qu'est ce que cela signifie?*” means, what does that

mean? and not, what does that *signify*? Now, then, let us see:

That is of no consequence,
That does not signify,
That is no matter,
Does it signify?
Does it much matter?
That did not signify much,

Cela n'est d'aucune conséquence.
N'importe.
Cela n'est d'aucune importance.
Importe-t-il?
Importe-t-il beaucoup?
Cela n'importait pas beaucoup.

What does that signify?

{ *Qu'est-ce que cela fait?*
or,
{ *Qu'importe?*

Observe, that the verb *faire* (which is a great actor in French), may, in many such cases, be used instead of *importer*; as, "*cela ne fait rien.*" There are some little differences in the use of the two, but *faire* is more familiar than *importer*. But, mind (and this brings us back to our subject), *il fait* does not govern the subjunctive; nor is the verb *faire* one of those which require the subjunctive after it.

421. The verb *CONVENIR*, when it is used as an *impersonal*, requires the subjunctive after it. This verb means *to fit, to suit, to become*, in short, *to be convenient*. It is a verb of great use, as ours are which answer to it:

It is fitting for that to be done,	il convient que cela <i>soit</i> fait.
It suits for him to go,	il convient qu'il <i>aille</i> .
It becomes them to be charitable,	il convient qu'ils <i>soient</i> charitables.

You see, here, that we, after our *fitting, suits, and becomes*, use our infinitives, *to be* and *to go*. The same may be done in French, when there is a noun or pronoun the actor in the phrase; as:

It suits him to go thither,	il lui convient d'y <i>aller</i> .
It becomes them to be charitable,	il leur convient d' <i>être</i> charitables.

When, however, one of these forms ought to be used, and when the other, can be taught only by practice; but you have the consolation to know that constant practice, diligent use of the pen, will very soon teach it:

There are no means of my going thither, { *Il n'y a pas moyen que j'y aille.*
 { *Je n'ai pas le moyen d'y aller.*

422. The CONJUNCTIONS, mentioned at the beginning of paragraph 419, as governing the subjunctive mode, are thirty-eight in number, and are these which follow :

afin que,	loin que,
avant que,	malgré que,
à la bonne heure que,	moyennant que,
au cas que,	non que,
à moins que,	non pas que,
à condition que,	nonobstant que,
à Dieu ne plaise que,	pour que,
bien que,	posez le cas que,
bien entendu que,	pourvu que,
bien loin que,	pour peu que,
ce n'est pas que,	plaise, <i>or</i> plut, à Dieu que,
de peur que,	quoique,
de crainte que,	sans que,
Dieu veuille que,	soit que,
encore que,	supposé que,
en cas que,	jusqu' à ce que,
excepté que,	si ce n'est que,
hormis que,	si tant est que,
hors que,	tant s'en faut que.

There are some Conjunctions which govern the *indicative* mode, and some that govern the *infinitive*; but if you place the above list well in your memory, you will very soon cease to confound the modes, as far as they are governed by Conjunctions. The Conjunctions that govern the subjunctive have always *que* after them; but as there are some Conjunctions which have *que* after them, and which govern the indicative mode, mistakes will happen if you do not take great care. For instance :

<i>Au cas qu'il aille,</i>	in case he <i>go</i> .
<i>Aussitôt qu'il va,</i>	as soon as he <i>gives</i> .
<i>A moins que nous soyons,</i>	except that we <i>may be</i> .
<i>Dès que nous serons,</i>	as soon as we <i>shall be</i> .

You see, here, that the two Conjunctions that I have taken from the above list have the verbs in the subjunctive mode. Look at the conjugation of *aller* and

of *être*. The act, in the first of the two examples, is *to go*. The actor is the *third person* in both instances: yet, in one case, the verb is *aille*, and in the other it is *va*; and this is only because one of the verbs has *au cas que* before it, and the other *aussitôt que*. It would be useless to give a list of the conjunctions which govern the *indicative*; because all the conjunctions which govern the subjunctive have *que*, and all which have *que* before them, and which are not in the above list of thirty-eight, govern the indicative. Fix, therefore, the above thirty-eight well in your memory; or, rather, make them *familiar to your eye*, and you will never make mistakes respecting them. Let us take a few examples relating to those conjunctions and their government of modes:

Suppose that they did it,
 Provided that they did it,
 Unless they did it,
 Not that they did it,

supposez qu'ils le *fissent*.
 pourvu qu'ils le *fissent*.
 à moins qu'ils le *fissent*.
 non qu'ils le *fissent*.

When they did it,
 Even as they did it,
 Because they did it,
 Besides that they did it,
 The moment they did it,

lorsqu'ils le *faisaient*, or *firent*.
 de même qu'ils le *faisaient*.
 à cause qu'ils le *faisaient*.
 outre qu'ils le *faisaient*.
 au moment qu'ils le *faisaient*.

Thus, you see, while it is always *did* in English, it is, in French, *fissent* above the line, and *faisaient* under the line. This difference is occasioned solely by the conjunctions. There is, you see, a very striking difference between the form of the one and that of the other; and the sound is very different also. It might have been *firent* instead of *faisaient*, the one being, as you know, the perfect, and the other the imperfect of the indicative; but neither bears much resemblance to *fissent*. It is, then, of great importance to have well

fixed in your mind the conjunctions that require, or govern, the subjunctive: there are but thirty-eight of them. Write them over and over until they become very familiar to your eye: and then you will have only to bear in mind, that *all other* conjunctions followed by *que* govern the indicative; and that these thirty-eight are all the conjunctions that govern the subjunctive.

423. The subjunctive is used after *qui*, when *qui* comes after an adjective in the superlative degree, or after a negative; as:

<i>Le plus joli jardin qu'il y ait dans ce pays-là,</i>	The prettiest garden that there is in that country.
---	---

and not

Le plus joli jardin qu'il y a dans ce pays-là.

It is the *qui*, perceive, coming after *le plus*, that demands the subjunctive of the verb. If there were no *qui*, or if there were *qui* without the *le plus*, the indicative would be used. Let us take an example of the three:

<i>La plus jolie fille qu'il y ait dans cette ville,</i>	the prettiest girl that there is in this town.
<i>La plus jolie fille est dans cette ville,</i>	the prettiest girl is in this town.
<i>La jolie fille qui est dans cette ville,</i>	the pretty girl that is in this town.

It is, you perceive, the *superlative* and the *qui* together that require the subjunctive to follow. Not only *qui*, however, but any other relative pronoun proceeding from *qui*, if such relative come between verbs expressing *desire* or *necessity*. But first let us take an example of the effect which the negative has upon the mode in this case:

Il n'y a <i>pas</i> d'homme <i>qui soit</i> plus estimé que lui,	there is no man who <i>is</i> more esteemed than he.
Il y a un homme <i>qui est</i> plus estimé que lui,	there is a man who <i>is</i> more esteemed than he.
Je ne vois <i>pas</i> de fleurs <i>qui soient</i> plus belles que celles-là,	I see no flowers which <i>are</i> finer than those.
Je vois des fleurs <i>qui sont</i> plus belles que celles-ci,	I see flowers which <i>are</i> more gay than these.

These examples make the matter plain so far. They show you, that it is the *negative* which requires the

subjunctive, and which causes you to have, in the first example, *soit*, while in the second you have *est*, though both are in the present time, and both in the third person singular, and though both are translated into English by *is*. The same remark applies to the third and fourth examples, except that they are in the plural instead of the singular. Here you have *soient* in one case and *sont* in the other, though both are translated into English by *are*. But, as I noticed above, any relative pronoun proceeding from *qui*, if such relative come between two verbs, and if it relate to a person or thing that is *desired*, *wanted*, or *wished for*, requires the subjunctive; as:

I want a servant *who* is industrious,

Il me faut un domestique *qui* soit laborieux.

Find me a house *that* is large and convenient,

trouvez-moi une maison *qui* soit grande et commode.

I wish to have a meadow *that* you think good, and *that* is to be sold,

Je veux un pré *que* vous trouviez bon, et *qui* soit à vendre.

However, if *qui* or *que* do not relate to a person or thing that is desired, wanted, or wished for, then the subjunctive is not used; as, “je n’aime pas un domestique *qui* fait son devoir à contre-cœur,” “I do not like a servant who does his duty unwillingly.” But let us take an example or two more:

I want a garden *which* is well situated,

j’ai besoin d’ (or, je veux) un jardin *qui* soit bien situé

He has a garden *which* is full of weeds,

Il a un jardin *qui* est plein de mauvaises herbes.

Tell me, said she, of a husband *who* is young and handsome, and rich at the same time,

parlez-moi, dit-elle, d’un mari *qui* soit jeune et joli, et riche en même temps.

I despise a man *who* is nothing but rich,

je méprise l’homme *qui* n’est que riche.

You see, when the *qui* or *que*, that is, the *who* or *whom*, or *which*, relates to a person or thing that is *desired* or *wished for*, or for the having of which, or the existing of which, there is necessity, want, or need; then the verb that follows must be in the subjunctive;

otherwise not. This is, I think, made quite clear by the above examples.

424. It now remains for me to speak, as far as the subjunctive mode is concerned, of the *different times* of the subjunctive. There is a present, a past imperfect, and a past perfect. Now, mark: when the verb which goes before the subjunctive is in the *present* or in the *future* of the indicative, then the *present time of the subjunctive* must be used; as:

Je <i>désire</i> qu'il <i>vienne</i> ,	I desire that he may come.
Je <i>désirerai</i> qu'il <i>vienne</i> ,	I shall desire that he may come.

But when the governing verb is in any time other than the present or the future of the indicative, then the subjunctive verb must be in the past perfect; as:

Je <i>désirais</i> qu'il <i>vînt</i> ,	I desired that he <i>might come</i> .
Je <i>désirai</i> qu'il <i>vînt</i> ,	I desired that he <i>might come</i> .
J' <i>ai</i> <i>désiré</i> qu'il <i>vînt</i> ,	I have desired that he <i>might come</i> .
J' <i>avais</i> <i>désiré</i> qu'il <i>vînt</i> ,	I had desired that he <i>might come</i> .

You see it is *vienne* after the present and the future of the indicative, and *vînt* after the past times and after the compound times.

425. We have *might come* in these examples; but it is not always that this translation takes place. In the conjugations you find *you may be* put against *vous soyez*. But though *you may be* is, in some cases, the translation of *vous soyez*, it is far indeed from being always such: now mind, for this is a very important matter. We have good use for one of our subjunctives here, in order to say, "il importe que vous *fassiez* la plus grande attention à ce que je dis," that is, "it is of consequence that you should pay the greatest attention to what I am saying."

Il <i>désire</i> que vous <i>soyez</i> puni,	he desires that you <i>may be</i> punished.
Il <i>convient</i> que vous <i>soyez</i> puni,	it is proper that you <i>should be</i> punished.

That is enough! Here is *soyez* translated by *may be*, and in the next line by *should be*. Some grammarians say, that *should* does not belong to the subjunctive; yet we here see it answering to *soyez*. In short, our SIGNS, *will, shall, should, would, could, may, and might*, cannot be reduced to any thing like a *comparison* with the different terminations of the French verbs. These signs, besides helping to show the time, have meanings which the endings of the French verbs have nothing at all to do with. The *should*, for instance, in the last of the above examples, has in it something of the meaning of *ought*. The French verbs do not answer to these signs, except in part; to answer to these signs the French have *principal verbs*, of which I shall speak by-and-by. [See paragraph 444.] What I wish to do here is, to caution you against supposing that *might, should*, and the rest of those words, are always translated into French *in the same manner*. Take another instance:

De peur que cela ne *soit*,
 Je souhaite que cela *soit*,
 Je voudrais qu'il *vint*,
 Je souhaite qu'il *vienne*,

For fear that that *should be*.
 I wish that that *may be*.
 I wish that *he would come*.
 I wish that *he may come*.

Here, in these two last examples, there are the *would* and the *may*, in **English**, to answer to the French *vint* and *vienne*. The truth is, that besides expressing the wish of the party speaking, the *would* expresses the *power to act* in the person who is wished to come, while *may* simply expresses the wish that he may come.

426. There is one instance where the subjunctive is used without either verb or conjunction to govern it; this is in the case of the verb *savoir*, which, in the first person singular, and when it has a negative,

takes the subjunctive instead of the indicative form; as, “je ne *sache pas*,” that is, instead of “je ne *sais pas*,” which latter would be the more ordinary expression. But there must be a *negative*, mind, or else the rule does not hold good.

[NOTE.—There is also a case in which the French frequently use the past time of the indicative in place of the compound of the past of the subjunctive. It is where our *would have* or *should have* are employed along with our passive participle, after such words of conditional meaning as *if*, *without*, *unless*, or *but for*. For example, in these sentences, which are in the writing of M. DE CHATEAUBRIAND :

Si la Pologne eût été reformée,
la race Slave *reprenait* son
indépendance,

Si ces maraudeurs avaient eu plus
d'audace, Bonaparte *demeurait*
prisonnier,

Sans votre intercession, ma tête
roulait sur l'échafaud,

If Poland had been reconstructed, the Slavonic race *regained* (would have regained) its independence.

If those marauders had had more boldness, Bonaparte *remained* (would have remained) a prisoner.

Without, or but for your intercession, my head *rolled* (would have rolled) on the scaffold.

So it is, with the French, when our *if*, along with the phrase *were to*, accompanies the verb, and expresses what is only supposed; as, again, the same writer says,

Que feriez vous, si je vous
mettais en liberté?

what would you do, if I *put* (were to put) you at liberty?

The English now and then use such expressions as, “but for your aid, he *was* (instead of *would have been*) a ruined man.” The difference is, that while these are rare in our language, they are very common in French.]

427. So much for the *indicative* and the *subjunctive*

modes. I observed before, that the far greater part of the verbs, or, rather, forms of verbs, are indicative. You may sometimes read whole pages of print without meeting with a verb in the subjunctive. But there is, nevertheless, an absolute necessity to learn this part of the grammar well, in order to become a *French scholar*; for, observe, to say, "*il faut que je vais*," is *broken French*. It is as bad and as broken as *I must went* would be in English. The modes embrace some very abstruse matter; but if there were no difficulties to overcome, there would be no honour and no pleasure in the acquisition.

428. THE IMPERATIVE MODE. This will give us but little trouble: it has been fully explained in the ETYMOLOGY. It subjects the verb to no changes. It has *no times*: it is simply the verb, in its present indicative time, uttered, or addressed, to the first person plural and to the second persons of both numbers; and in the third persons of both numbers, it is the verb in the present of the subjunctive. The whole thing is, in fact, exhibited at the end of every one of the conjugations. I will, however, for convenience sake, exhibit it again here, and then make a few short remarks on the use of the imperative mode.

<i>Va,</i>	go, or, go thou.
<i>Qu'il (or qu'elle) aille,</i>	let him, or her, go.
<i>Allons,</i>	let us go, or, go we.
<i>Allez,</i>	go, or, go you.
<i>Qu'ils (or qu'elles) aillent,</i>	let them go.

I have, at the close of paragraph 116, fully explained the source and reason of these expressions. Now, as to the manner of employing the imperative mode in sentences, it is generally the same in both languages:

but you must observe that the third persons of the imperative mode must always have the *que* before them.

429. Exclamations are generally formed by the use of verbs in the imperative mode. But there is one verb (*voir*) used in this way, which is of so much importance that it merits a paragraph to itself. The expressions *voici* and *voilà* are composed of part of the verb *voir* and the adverbs *ci* and *là*. In both cases we have the second person singular of the imperative of *voir*, which (see paragraph 239) is *vois*; that is, *see thou*. You have, in paragraph 317, seen the important part that *ci* and *là* act along with the Demonstrative Pronouns. The first, you know, means *here*, and the other *there*; as, “*ce livre-ci, ce livre-là*,” “*this book here, this book there*.” So, you see, though the Cockneys have been so much ridiculed for their *this here* pie, and that *there* pudding, they have the polite French language to keep them in countenance. But the truth is, for our *this* and *that* the French have only *ce*; they are, therefore, compelled to resort to the use of *ci* and *là*. Well, then, now comes *voici* and *voilà*. The *s* of *vois* is dropped as unnecessary; but the expressions are *vois ci* and *vois là*, that is, literally, *see here* and *see there*; and endless is the number of ways in which the French use them, and particularly the latter; the manner of employing which is one of the greatest beauties of the language. They are not employed to express any thing about *seeing*. If we want to tell any one to *look* at or to *see* any thing, we use *regardez* or *voyez*; as:

Regardez l'oiseau,
Voyez l'heure qu'il est,

| look at the bird.
| see what o'clock it is.

Voici and *voilà* are used to express parts of our verb *to be*, used with our adverbs *here* and *there*; as:

<i>Here is a basket of cherries for you.</i>	<i>voici un panier de cerises pour vous.</i>
<i>There are ten baskets for them,</i>	<i>voilà dix paniers pour eux.</i>

But these words are made use of instead of *that is*, *this is*, and *it is*, and instead of other pronouns used with *être*.

<i>Le voici qui travaille,</i>	<i>here he is working, or at work.</i>
<i>La voilà qui chante,</i>	<i>there she is singing.</i>
<i>N'est-ce pas une drôle d'affaire?</i>	<i>is not this an odd affair?</i>
<i>Voici qui est beau,</i>	<i>this is fine.</i>
<i>Voilà qui est beau,</i>	<i>that is fine.</i>
<i>Voilà donc qui est fini,</i>	<i>there, then, it is all over.</i>

In narratives, when the writer or speaker wishes to give life to his narrative, he uses *voilà*, and thus, in a manner, brings the persons and things before you; as:

<i>Il commençait à pleuvoir, et me voilà sans abri,</i>	<i>it began to rain, and there was I without shelter.</i>
<i>Comme nous allions nous mettre à table</i>	<i>as we were sitting down to table, a</i>
<i>voilà un messenger, qui entre dans la</i>	<i>messenger entered the dining-room.</i>
<i>salle à manger,</i>	

In this last example there is, in the English, neither *there* nor *is*. The *voilà* is not expressed at all: nor can it be with propriety. We do, indeed, see, even in printed translations, attempts to translate the *voilà* in sentences like this: we do hear translators say; "as "we were sitting down to table, *behold*, a messenger "entered." But this is not *English language*. We must have *entered*, and *who enters*; and if we have not the *entering* in the *present time*, what becomes of the *behold*? Take care, then, how you translate passages with *voici*, or *voilà*, in them.

<i>Ne voilà-t-il pas une belle journée?</i>	<i>is it not a fine day?</i>
<i>Je l'ai donné au Monsieur que voilà,</i>	<i>I have given it to that gentleman.</i>

I beg you to pay great attention to what I have said with regard to these words. They are in constant use. They occur, perhaps, on an average, once a

minute in every conversation. We may say, in French, “il commençait à pleuvoir, et j’étais là sans “abri:” but this is not *French language*, though the words are French.

430. THE INFINITIVE MODE. Read again (though you have so recently read it) paragraph 114, and then go on with me. One of the greatest differences in the two languages lies in the manner of employing the *infinitive* and the *active participle*. We, in English, make continual use of the latter; the French very little; and in many cases where we always use it, they never can. This is the case, as we have seen, in the present and past times; as:

I am drinking,	<i>je bois,</i>	} and not {	<i>je suis buvant.</i>
You were eating,	<i>vous mangiez,</i>		<i>vous étiez mangeant.</i>
They are marching,	<i>ils marchent,</i>		<i>ils sont marchant.</i>

The three last are not only not good French, but they are nothing at all. They are *letters* and *sounds*, marks upon paper, and noise; but they form no part of *language*. Pray mind this; for there is nothing that we English break ourselves of with so much difficulty as of the proneness to cling to our *ings*, and to force the French language to admit the words which literally answer to them.

431. The French use, in many cases, the *infinitive*, when we use the active participle; but I shall notice this more under the head of PARTICIPLES. The main thing respecting the *infinitive* is this; that there are certain verbs and adjectives which require *de* before the infinitive; certain other verbs and adjectives which require *à* before the infinitive; certain other verbs that take neither *de* nor *à* nor any other preposition before the infinitive; certain other verbs

that take either *de* or *à* before the infinitive; and, last of all, certain *nouns* that take *de* before the next infinitive. But to give any thing under the name of *rule*, to teach you when to use *à* and when to use *de*, would be to disgust you: at the end of each of twenty rules, or more, there must come more, perhaps, than twenty exceptions, making four hundred in the whole; so that to enter into detail here would be to go far in the making of a dictionary. [See the *Note* at end of paragraph 454.]

432. But there are these observations to make; that when our English verb is followed by the preposition *of*, *from*, *at*, *upon*, *about*, *with*, or *after*, before an *active participle*, the *DE* is commonly used before the infinitive in French; and that when our preposition is *to*, *in*, or *for*, the French preposition commonly is *à*; as:

I employ myself *in writing*,
I keep myself *from writing*,

je m'occupe *à écrire*.
je m'abstiens *d'écrire*.

That is to say, "I employ myself in *to write*:" "I keep myself *from to write*." The sense of the words affords a good *reason* for the use of *à* and of *de* in these cases; but this is far from being always the case. The use of these prepositions before verbs in the infinitive seems, in numerous cases, to be quite capricious. All that we can say is, that the French language will have it thus; and that the difficulty being great, our perseverance and patience must be great also. However, you will, even by this time, have acquired, from writing, reading, and speaking, the habit of using *à* and *de* in a proper manner three times out of four.

433. Besides *de* and *à*, there is *pour*, used before the

infinitives of French verbs. This *pour* is used when our *to* means *in order to*, or *for the purpose of*; as:

De l'eau *pour boire*, | water *to drink*.

But *pour* is also used in cases where we use *for* followed by the active participle; as:

Il sera récompensé *pour avoir* | he shall be rewarded *for having*
bien travaillé, | worked well.

We might say *for working*. But neither of these; neither *pour ayant* nor *pour travaillant* can be used in French. Guard yourself against the attempt by all means; for this mode of expression is no more the language of the French than it is the language of horses.

434. When the infinitive is (as was observed in paragraph 114) a noun: as, "*to quarrel* is disagreeable;" it may be expressed in English by the active participle; as, "*quarrelling* is disagreeable." But in French you must adhere to the infinitive, and say, "*disputer est désagréable*." It is much better to say, "*il est désagréable de disputer*;" but, at any rate, you must avoid translating *quarrelling* by *disputant*.

435. A verb which has before it a word expressing sufficiency, or *too much*, takes *pour*; as, "*ils sont assez forts pour le faire*," they are strong enough to do it. But, observe, if the word of sufficiency do not come before the verb, there is no *pour* before it. [See the *Note* at the end of paragraph 454.]

436. THE PARTICIPLES. In paragraph 117 [and also in paragraphs 192, 199, and 373] I spoke of the Participles; I told you why they were so called; and in the Conjugations you have seen enough of them as far as relates to their formation. I have just spoken,

also, of our English ACTIVE PARTICIPLE as answering, in many cases, to the French infinitive. This active participle is, with us, *verb, adjective, noun*, alternately; as:

1. *Seeing* that he was going away I spoke to him.
2. A *seeing* man is not easily deceived.
3. *Seeing* is *believing*.

Now, as *verb*, we use this participle in French; but never as *adjective* or as *noun*. Therefore, when we find it either of these, in English, we must give the French phrase a wholly different turn.

1. *Voyant* qu'il s'en allait, je lui parlai.
2. Un homme *qui voit* n'est pas facile à tromper.
3. *Voir* c'est *croire*.

And never un *voyant homme*, *voyant* c'est *croyant*: never, on any account, is a word of this sort to be considered an adjective or a noun. Therefore, this participle is always *indeclinable*; that is, it never changes its form to denote either number or gender. There are a few *law-terms*, indeed, that appear to be exceptions; but even these are not; and you will be sure to bear in mind, that it is, in French, *never adjective* and *never noun*. This constitutes one of the great differences in the two languages. When you have an ING to translate into French, take good care how you attempt to translate it by the French active participle. [See *Note* following paragraph 440.]

437. Even in its *verbal* capacity this participle must be used very sparingly. We, in English, say, for instance, instead of *going*; the French never; they say, "au lieu d'*aller*;" that is, instead of *to go*. After almost all the prepositions we, in English, use this participle; but the French use it after *en* (in) only:

After having,
For fear of being,
For want of asking,
Without speaking,
By writing,
Instead of swimming,
Save giving,

après avoir.
de crainte d'être.
faute de demander.
sans parler.
par écrit.
au lieu de nager.
sauf à donner.

I give you all these examples that you may have a visible and striking proof of the difference in the two languages in this respect.

438. The active participle is frequently used after *en* when it is a preposition, answering to *in*; and, at times, when it answers to our *by*, or *while*, and, perhaps, some other of our prepositions and adverbs; as:

<i>En faisant cela vous m'obligerez beaucoup.</i>	<i>in doing that you will much oblige me.</i>
<i>C'est en étudiant qu'on apprend une langue étrangère.</i>	<i>it is by studying that one learns a foreign language.</i>
<i>Tout en brûlant mon omelette, elle me toisait,</i>	<i>all the while that she was burning my omelet, she kept eying me from head to foot.</i>

I have introduced this word *toiser* to give you an instance of how much is sometimes said by a word more than can be said by any other word (answering to that one) in another language.

439. The active participle is, as we have seen, in some cases, in English, a noun; as, *the falling* of the house *killed* the inhabitants. Here are, article, noun in the nominative case, verb, and noun in the objective case. Literally the sentence would be thus translated:

<i>The falling of the house killed the inhabitants,</i>	<i>e tombant de la maison tua les habitants.</i>
---	--

Now, mind, the like of this can never be said in French. The language of geese would be as intelligible to a Frenchman as this. You must say,

<i>La chute de la maison tua les habitants,</i>	<i>the fall of the house killed the inhabitants,</i>
ou,	or,
<i>La maison, en tombant, tua les habitants,</i>	<i>the house, in falling, killed the inhabitants.</i>

Either of these English phrases will do; but neither is so good as that from which the French language flees as from head-splitting dissonance. Whenever there is, in English, an article, a possessive pronoun, or any word which being put before the active participle shows it to be *a noun*, it never can be rendered in French by the active participle, unless with *en*: it must be answered by a noun or by an infinitive:

The bleating of the sheep,	<i>le bêlement des moutons.</i>
The cheating of his master,	<i>la fourberie faite à son maître.</i>
Her complaining of her husband,	<i>ses plaintes contre son mari.</i>
The cause of his going away yesterday,	<i>la cause pourquoi il s'en alla hier.</i>

BOILEAU, in one of his poems, addressed to LOUIS XIV., exclaims,

“Grand Roi! cesse *de vaincre* ou je cesse *d'écrire*.”

Now, though we say,

Great King, cease *to conquer*, or I cease *to write*,

we may also say,

Great King, cease *conquering*, or I cease *writing*:

but this you must never attempt to say in French; and against such attempts I cannot too often caution you. I know of no part of our language which so puzzled me to turn into French, as those sentences in which we find the *article*, or the *possessive* pronoun, before our *active participle*; and I cannot refrain from adding another example or two in order to make this quite clear to you:

<i>The running away of the army left the town exposed to the enemy,</i>	<i>la fuite de l'armée a laissé la ville exposée à l'ennemi.</i>
<i>The defeating of the enemy opened the way for us into his camp,</i>	<i>la défaite de l'ennemi nous a ouvert le chemin à son camp.</i>
<i>His perfect sobriety and his great industry have been the cause of his being so much respected,</i>	<i>sa sobriété parfaite et sa grande industrie ont été la cause qu'on a eu tant de respect pour lui.</i>
<i>Her being young is much in her favour,</i>	<i>sa jeunesse fait beaucoup pour elle.</i>
<i>Their coming hither has ruined them,</i>	<i>ils ont été ruinés à cause qu'ils sont venus ici.</i>

I expect <i>his coming</i> with great impatience,	j'attends son arrivée avec bien de l'impatience.
<i>Our going</i> to America was expected by nobody,	notre départ pour l'Amérique n'était attendu de personne.
<i>Your losing</i> your sight was a sad thing for your wife and children,	c'était malheureux pour votre femme et vos enfans que vous eussiez perdu la vue.
His <i>coming</i> here has made his fortune,	il doit sa fortune à ce qu'il est venu ici.
Her <i>pleasing</i> them made her get a rich husband,	elle a trouvé un mari riche parce qu'elle a su leur plaire.

Nothing can more strongly characterize the two languages. Not the least resemblance is there between them in this respect.

440. It only remains for me to speak of the employing of the French active participle before an adjective, or before a *passive participle*, or with *que* before a noun, or a pronoun; as:

Having been at the play last night,	<i>ayant été à la comédie hier au soir.</i>
Seeing that it was going to rain,	<i>voyant qu'il allait pleuvoir.</i>
Having heard that they were coming,	<i>ayant appris qu'ils allaient venir.</i>
Perceiving that it was not very late,	<i>s'apercevant qu'il n'était pas fort tard.</i>
Knowing very well that she would not come,	<i>sachant très-bien qu'elle ne viendrait pas.</i>
Believing that he dared not go thither,	<i>croyant qu'il n'osait y aller.</i>
Walking in the street I met them,	<i>en me promenant dans la rue je les rencontrai.</i>
Being ill I could not go to their house,	<i>étant malade je ne pouvais aller chez eux.</i>

The manner of using the participle is, in this case, nearly the same in both languages. We say, *having seen*; the French say, *ayant vu*; we say, *seeing that*; they say, *voyant que*. So that, in this respect, there is no difference worth speaking of. Indeed, nearly all that you have to do with regard to the French active participle is, never to employ it as an *adjective*, nor as a *noun*.

[NOTE.—This last sentence, like what is said in paragraphs 192 and 436, means literally more than the author intended. There are some instances, though comparatively few, in which the French active participle does become a noun, answering to our active par-

ticiples, or to our noun when derived from a verb, and ending in *er*, or *or*; as:

un <i>virant</i> ,	a living person.
les <i>vivants</i> ,	the living, or those alive.
un <i>croyant</i> ,	a believer, or Christian.
un <i>voyant</i> ,	one having sight, a seer.
un <i>médisant</i> ,	a reviler.
un <i>conquérant</i> ,	a conqueror.

These are the participles of *vivre*, *croire*, *voir*, *médire*, and *conquérir*.—But there are vast numbers of French adjectives which are simply the active participle, whether of active or of neuter verbs, used in an adjective sense; and, therefore, by some grammarians, called *verbal adjectives*. Thus, M. DE LAMARTINE speaks of “les Turcs, le seul peuple *tolérant*,” the Turks, the only *tolerant* (*tolerating*) people. So, in “il est *fatiguant* d’étudier toujours,” it is *fatiguing* to study continually, the participle in each language becomes an adjective. The word when adjective must, of course, follow the rule as to agreement, in number and gender, with the noun, the final *ant* changing to *ants*, *ante*, *antes*, accordingly. Thus, from the verbs *entreprendre*, *divertir*, *humilier*, *fleurir*, *convaincre*, *monter*, *surprendre*, *dominer*, *changer*, *choquer*, the French have

homme <i>entreprenant</i> ,	enterprising man.
hommes <i>entreprenants</i> ,	enterprising men.
ouvrage <i>divertissant</i> ,	amusing work.
joug <i>humiliant</i> ,	humiliating yoke.
empire <i>florissant</i> ,	flourishing empire.
preuve <i>convainquante</i> ,	convincing proof.
preuves <i>convainquantes</i> ,	convincing proofs.
marée <i>montante</i> ,	rising tide.
chose <i>surprenante</i> ,	surprising thing.
religion <i>dominante</i> ,	dominant religion.
couleur <i>changeante</i> ,	changeable colour.
manières <i>choquantes</i> ,	shocking manners.

Some of these may come either before or after the noun; as, *affligeant spectacle* or *spectacle affligeant*, afflicting sight; *charmante demoiselle* or *demoiselle charmante*, charming young lady.]

441. We now come to the PASSIVE PARTICIPLE. You know it well, as to what it comes from, and as to the reason of its name. You ought to go back to paragraph 117, and there read my description of the nature of the PARTICIPLES. Here you see, then, that, while our *active* participle sometimes performs the office of an *adjective*, at others of a *verb*, and, at others, of a *noun*, the *passive* participle sometimes performs the office of an *adjective*, and at others of a *verb*. We have just seen a great deal about the active participle; but let us take a view of both together here; thus:

Active,	{	A proscribing man,	<i>un homme qui proscriit.</i>
		A man who is proscribing,	<i>un homme qui est à proscrire.</i>
		Proscribing is horrible,	<i>proscrire est horrible.</i>
Passive,	{	A proscribed man,	<i>un homme proscriit.</i>
		A man who has proscribed.	<i>un homme qui a proscriit.</i>

Here we see both these words in all their functions. It is the passive participle that we have now to do with; and here you see it in both its capacities, namely, that of an *adjective* and that of a *verb*. These distinctions would be useless were the *form of the word always the same*. Little need we English care when our passive participle is *adjective*, or when it is *verb*, seeing that we always write it with the *same letters*. The active participle is, in both languages, *unchangeable* in its form [excepting as mentioned in the preceding *Note*], and is, therefore, attended with little difficulty, compared with the passive participle,

which, in French, is liable to changes in its form; which, in fact, like an adjective, changes its form to agree in number and gender with its noun; and which makes its changes precisely according to the rules laid down in Letter VIII, for the forming of the numbers and genders of adjectives. How different from our passive participle, which never undergoes any changes of form! It is always written in the same way. We say, "a *proscribed* man, a *proscribed* woman;" but the French must say, "un homme *proscrit*, une femme *proscrite*." We say, "two *proscribed* men;" they, "deux hommes *proscrits*." Well, but we know how to form plural numbers and feminine genders? Yes, but the French passive participle is not, *in all cases*, liable to changes of form. It is, in some cases, a word which, like an adverb, has no changes of form; and our difficulty is, *to know when we ought to make it a changeable word, and when we ought not*. This is a real difficulty; though it, like all our other difficulties, is to be quickly overcome, if we be attentive and industrious. You must perceive, that it is of great consequence to know when you are to write (and pronounce also) *proscrit*, when *proscrits*, when *proscrite*, and when *proscrites*. And, mind, you cannot ascertain this *from the Dictionary*, as you can the gender of nouns and many other things. This is a matter which depends upon the construction of the sentence, and upon other circumstances, which are of infinite variety, and are purely contingent. In such a case; therefore, no dictionary can exhibit examples to be of any use. Take an instance in the use of the passive participle of our old acquaintance TROUVER.

J'ai *trouvée* une brebis cette après-midi; I have *found* an ewe this afternoon;
 mais elle n'est pas si bonne que la but she is not so good as the ewe
 brebis que j'ai *trouvée* ce matin, which I *found* this morning.

Now, you see here, that the person who finds is the same in both instances; the thing found is, in both instances, the same in number and in gender; and yet, in one instance, we make use of *trouvé*, and in the other of *trouvée*. In the first instance we use the participle without changing its termination; and in the last, we change its termination to make it agree in gender with *brebis*. Take a few more examples :

Avez-vous <i>trouvé</i> cet homme ?	Have you <i>found</i> that man ?
Oui, je l'ai <i>trouvé</i> ,	Yes, I have <i>found</i> him.
Avez-vous <i>trouvé</i> ces hommes ?	Have you <i>found</i> those men ?
Oui, je les ai <i>trouvés</i> ,	Yes, I have <i>found</i> them.
Avez-vous <i>trouvé</i> cette femme ?	Have you <i>found</i> that woman ?
Oui, je l'ai <i>trouvée</i> ,	Yes, I have <i>found</i> her.
Avez-vous <i>trouvé</i> ces femmes ?	Have you <i>found</i> those women ?
Oui, je les ai <i>trouvées</i> .	Yes, I have <i>found</i> them.

Thus, you see, it is always *found* in English, though it is *trouvé*, *trouvée*, *trouvés*, or *trouvées* in French; and you see that these changes take place in the French participle *only sometimes*. You see that while *trouvé* and *trouvée* are both applied to the finding of the *femme*, *trouvé* and *trouvés* are both applied to the finding of the *femmes*, and also that with the plural *hommes*, both *trouvé* and *trouvés* are applied. It is clear, then, that the changes in the form of the passive participle must depend, not upon the numbers and genders of the nouns only, but partly upon the *construction of the sentences*; that is to say, the manner in which, *with regard to other words*, the participle stands in the sentence.

442. Let us now see, then, what rules we can take for our guide here, beginning with those cases in which

the *passive participle* is subject to the changes above mentioned.

FIRST. It is subject to change (*generally* speaking) when it has the verb *être* before it. But, mind, this is only *generally*. It is, however, always subject to change when it is used merely as an *adjective*. I will take the verb *proscrire* for my illustration here, as far as it will suit. *Proscrire* is, you know (see paragraph 201), conjugated like *écrire*, which you find conjugated in paragraph 216. The passive participle is, you see, *écrit*; and, therefore, the passive participle of *proscrire* is *proscrit*. This, to make the plural masculine, changes to *proscrits*; to make the singular feminine, it changes to *proscrite*; and, to make the plural feminine, it changes to *proscrites*. Now, then, observe, the passive participle is always subject to change its form when it is used merely as an adjective; as:

Un homme <i>proscrit</i> ,	a <i>proscribed</i> man.
Deux hommes <i>proscrits</i> ,	two <i>proscribed</i> men.
Une femme <i>proscrite</i> ,	a <i>proscribed</i> woman.
Deux femmes <i>proscrites</i> ,	two <i>proscribed</i> women.

Now, observe, this is invariably the case, when the participle is thus used plainly and clearly as an adjective. But, we ought to notice, that the *être* is understood in all these instances; for, we mean, “un homme qui a *été* proscrit,” “a man who has *been* proscribed.” The passive participle is, as I said before, *generally* subject to change when it comes after the verb *être*. And, mind, the passive participle must *always* have either *être* or *avoir* before it; for, though we use it sometimes without expressing *être*, that verb is, in such cases, as

we have just seen, always understood. Well, then, let us see first how the participle is used with *être*, and then how it is used with *avoir*.

SECOND. The participle changes its form when it is used with *être*, when the verb to which it belongs is a *neuter* verb, or when it is a *passiva* verb, whether reflected or not; as:

Neuter Verb.		he is gone away, they are gone away, she is gone away, they are gone away,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sing. \& plu.} \\ \text{masc.} \\ \text{sing. \& plu.} \\ \text{fem.} \end{array} \right.$
Passive Verb.		he is proscribed, they are proscribed, she is proscribed, they are proscribed,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sing. \& plu.} \\ \text{masc.} \\ \text{sing. \& plu.} \\ \text{fem.} \end{array} \right.$
Reflected Verb.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Il s'est coupé,} \\ \text{Ils se sont coupés,} \\ \text{Elle s'est coupée,} \\ \text{Elles se sont coupées} \end{array} \right.$	<i>its,</i> he has cut himself, they have cut themselves, she has cut herself, they have cut themselves,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sing. \& plu.} \\ \text{masc.} \\ \text{sing. \& plu.} \\ \text{fem.} \end{array} \right.$

But, now, there are some seeming exceptions to this; and these you must very exactly attend to. If the verb *être* can have its place conveniently supplied by *avoir*, which often happens in using the participles of reflected verbs, the participle does not change its form; as:

Elle s'est coupé le bras, | she has cut her arm.

You see this may be expressed by *avoir*: “elle a coupé son bras.” But the truth is, that here is *action*, and the action is done to the arm: the participle is not *really passive*. It has *être* before it; but *être*, as you know, is used instead of *avoir* in conjugating the reflected verbs. The two participles *allé* and *venu*, when there is a pronoun in the objective case before *être*, and a verb after the participle, do not change their form; as:

Il lui est allé parler, | he is gone to speak to him.
Ils leur sont allés parler, | they are gone to speak to them.

But this is not the case, if the place of the pronoun in

the objective case be changed; for then the participle does change its form; as:

<i>Il est allé lui, parler,</i>		he is <i>gone</i> to speak to him.
<i>Ils sont allés leur parler,</i>		they are <i>gone</i> to speak to them.

In the first of these cases (*allé parler*) the two words make, in some sort, but one: "*Gone to speak to.*" But, in the latter case, there is a clear separation. The verb *être* is the only one that has any connection with *allé*. *Speak to* is a fresh verb, and it governs *les* in the objective case; whereas in the former instance *allé parler* govern *lui* and *leur*. But besides *allé* and *venu*, there are some participles which do not, when followed by another verb, change their form, though they have *être* before them; as:

<i>Le livre qu'il s'est proposé de lire,</i>		the book that he has <i>proposed</i> to read.
<i>Les livres qu'il s'est proposé de lire,</i>		the books that he has <i>proposed</i> to read.

Here is no change in the form of the participle; and the reason is, that in such cases as this the participle is closely connected with the verb that follows: the proposing to read and the reading make but *one affair*, *one act*.

[The rule, here, appears to be, that when the subject, or nominative of the verb, and the object of the verb, are two different persons or things, or, rather, when the nominative is but an indirect object, and there is another and direct object of the verb, the participle undergoes no change. Such is the case in the foregoing examples, where *le bras* and *de lire* are the immediate objects of *couper* and *proposer*, and *se* is only an indirect object. As, again:

Ces hommes se sont <i>bâti</i> une maison,	Those men have <i>built</i> (for) themselves a house.
Ces femmes se sont <i>procuré</i> un emploi,	Those women have <i>procured</i> (for) themselves an employment.

The participles, in this case, need no more change than in saying “*Ils ont bâti une maison* ;” “*Elles ont procuré un emploi*” (they have built a house; they have procured an employment). The indirect object may be said to be governed by the preposition, which is either expressed or understood. So it is with the two former examples, where, in French, the literal meaning is, “she has cut *to herself* the arm,” “he has proposed *to himself* to read.” It is the same if the reflected verb be neuter, no direct object beyond the action of the verb being expressed; as in “*Ils se sont écrit*, *Ils se sont parlé*,” they have *written*, they have *spoken*, to themselves, or to each other.—But frequently the nominative and the direct object of the verb are strictly one and the same, and then the participle must agree in number and gender with the noun or pronoun; as:

Ces hommes se sont *persuadés*
de cela,

Those men have *persuaded* themselves of that.

Ces femmes se sont *présentées* à
la porte,

Those women have *presented* themselves at the door.

Here the sole objects of the persuading and the presenting are the men and women *themselves*, there being no sense of a preposition to denote such relation of a direct to an indirect object as in the previous examples. Therefore here, making the participle to agree, we must say, “*Nous nous sommes trouvés malades*,” we *found* ourselves ill; “*Ils se sont entendus*,” they *heard* themselves; and not *trouvé, entendu*.]

443. THIRD. I now come to the use of the passive participle with *avoir*. Generally the participle *does not* change its form, when it has

any part of *avoir* before it. Let us take *avoir* with *proscrit* and *coupé*.

<i>Il a proscrit,</i>	he has proscribed.
<i>Ils ont proscrit,</i>	they have proscribed.
<i>Elle a proscrit,</i>	she has proscribed.
<i>Elles ont proscrit,</i>	they have proscribed.
<i>Il a coupé,</i>	he has cut.
<i>Ils ont coupé,</i>	they have cut.
<i>Elle a coupé,</i>	she has cut.
<i>Elles ont coupé,</i>	they have cut.

Here you see there are no changes in the form of the participle, as there are when it is used with *être*. But this is *not always* the case: and now we are going to see how the participle is affected by the *construction of the sentence*, of which I spoke at the close of the paragraph 441, and which you will now look at again. You saw, in paragraph 441, the instances of *homme* and *femme*. Look at them again; and then we will take another example.

<i>Il a proscrit aujourd'hui les</i>	he has proscribed the women
<i>femmes qu'il a proscrites</i>	to-day whom he proscribed
<i>l'année passée,</i>	last year.

Here the person who proscribes is the same in both cases, the persons proscribed are the same in both cases; and yet the participle does not change its form, in one case, to express number and gender, and does change its form for that purpose in the other case. Now, the *reason* is this: in the first instance, the participle has an *active* meaning, and in the second a *passive* meaning. In both instances we have the compound time of the verb *proscrire*; but in the first the object is to express what the man *has done*; and in the second to express what the women *have had done to them*. In the latter instance the meaning is

passive: it means that the women *were* proscribed, *furent pros crites*, last year. The participle, in this last instance, *characterizes* the women. It is intended, not so much to *assert* any thing about them, as to say who or what they are. This is the *reason* of the change being made in the participle in the one case, and not in the other; and out of this reason has come this *rule*, that when a passive participle, coming after *avoir*, has going before it a noun or pronoun in the objective case, and governed in that case by *avoir* and the participle; then the participle does change its form to express number and gender. Now, try the last example by this rule:

Il a pros crit les femmes aujourd'hui.

Here there is no noun nor pronoun in the objective case going before *a pros crit*. The *il* is in the nominative case. The *il* is the subject, and *les femmes* is the object; but, in

qu'il a pros crites l'année pass ée,

we have *qu'*, that is, *que* (whom), which goes *before* the participle, and which is in the objective case, and governed in that case by *avoir* and the participle; and, therefore, the participle changes its form. Thus, you see, it depends, in many cases, on the *place* which the participle occupies in the sentence, whether it be to change its form or not. MONSIEUR RESTAUT says, that "when the participle *ceases* to have a *passive* signification, it is *indeclinable*; that is, it does not change its "form;" and he says, that "it *does cease* to have the "passive signification, when it forms, with *avoir*, the "compound times of any verb, whether active or neuter." This is, indeed, *frequently* the case, but it is far from

being always, or even generally, the case; and I wonder how the observation found its way to the paper from so able a pen as that of MONSIEUR RESTAUT. Why, in "qu'il a *proscrites*," the participle forms, with *avoir*, the compound time of an active verb; and yet the participle changes its form. But let us take an example from MONSIEUR RESTAUT himself.

J'ai *reçu* les lettres que vous m'avez *écrites* au sujet de l'affaire que je vous avais *proposée*:
et après les avoir *lues* avec attention, j'ai *reconnu*,
comme vous, que si je l'avais *entreprise*, j'y aurais
trouvé des obstacles, que je n'avais pas *prévus*.

Here are eight participles, each of which, with *avoir*, forms a compound time of the verb; and yet three of them (*reçu*, *reconnu*, *trouvé*) do not change their form. It is clear, then, that it is the *place* of the participle that is to be attended to here. The word *lettres* is a *plural feminine*, and accordingly it has *écrites* in the above sentence:

les lettres *que* vous m'avez *écrites*.

But why not make the participle of *recevoir* agree also with *lettres*? Why not write,

J'ai *reques* les lettres,

and not *reçu*? Because, in the instance first here mentioned the *que* (which) represents *lettres*, and which is in the objective case, governed by *avez écrites*, goes *before* the participle; and because, in the last instance, *les lettres*, which is in the objective, and governed by *ai reçu*, comes *after* the participle. The same may be said of *lues*, and, indeed, of all other participles thus used:

J'ai *envoyé* dix oiseaux à la ville, | I have *sent* ten birds to the town.
Les dix oiseaux *que* j'ai *envoyés*, | the ten birds *that* I have *sent*.

Thus, then, it is the *place* of the participle that you have principally to look to, in order to regulate your conduct in the use of it. Now there are only two exceptions to this rule. The first is, that, in the *impersonals* with *avoir* the participle never changes its form; as:

La chaleur qu'il a fait,
Le froid qu'il a fait,

the hot weather that has been.
the cold weather that has been.

Here, you see, *chaleur* is feminine, and *froid* masculine; and yet the participle does not change its form. The *reason* of this is, that the *il*, in this *il fait*, does not represent any *actor*. There is no *action*; there is nothing *done* to the *heat* or the *cold*. If the *fait* had related to something *done* to a thing, it would have been otherwise; as:

La table qu'il a faite,
L'habit qu'il a fait,

the table that he has made.
the coat that he has made.

The other exception is similar to that mentioned in the last paragraph: namely, when the participle is *followed* by a *verb*, which, together with the participle, expresses but *one idea*, and when the two are rather *one word* than *two*. When this is the case, though the noun or pronoun, which is in the objective, come before the participle, the participle does not change its form; as:

Le papier que j'ai vu trouver,
La plume que j'ai vu trouver,

the paper that I have *seen found*.
the pen that I have *seen found*.

You see that, in these cases, there is a verb coming after the participle, and expressing, together with the participle, but *one idea*. If it were not for this reason, the participle would change its form; as:

**L'habit que j'ai fait,*
les habits que j'ai faits.

[NOTE.—Some further illustration may be useful in this place. Agreeing with the foregoing, observe the following examples, wherein, whatever the number or gender, the participle remains unchangeable :

La chose, or les choses que vous avez entendu dire,	The thing, or the things that you have heard say.
L'histoire, or les histoires que nous avons entendu raconter,	The history, or the histories that we have heard relate.

Here, in English, as in French, it might be *heard say* (to say), instead of *heard said*, just as we may have *heard tell* (to tell) instead of *heard told*; though we could not well say *heard relate* (to relate) instead of *heard related*. The French idiom, on the contrary, will not allow such expressions as “*entendu dit*,” “*entendu raconté*.” The French idiom requires the infinitive of the one verb after the participle of the other, as in the above examples, while our way commonly is to use the participle of the second verb to answer to that French infinitive. And in this case, that is, where the English participle is followed by another passive participle, the French participle, used with the infinitive, is unchangeable. As, again, with the following :

Les troupeaux que j'ai vu garder,	The flocks that I have seen tended.
Les chansons que j'ai entendu chanter,	The songs that I have heard sung.

Here, in these four examples, the absence of agreement is said to be because the participle has not for its objects the *chose* or *choses*, *histoire* or *histoires*, *troupeaux*, *chansons*, but the acts expressed by the verbs *dire*, *raconter*, *garder*, *chanter*.—There is, however, this distinction to be noticed, that when the antecedent is the object of what is expressed by the participle, that participle does change to agree, exactly the same as an adjective; as :

Les bergers que j'ai vu garder ces trou- peaux,	The Shepherds that I have seen tend those flocks.
Les Dames que j'ai entendues chanter les chansons,	The ladies that I have heard sing the songs.

Here it is the *bergers* and the *dames* who are the objects, and not the acts expressed by the *garder* and *chanter*. This distinction is further shown by observing, that to represent the French infinitive, as in these two latter examples, we may also use our active participle, and say, "the shepherds that I have *seen tending*," "the ladies that I have *heard singing*." But it would be scarcely usual, if correct, to say, "the flocks that I have *seen tending*" (meaning *tended*), or "the songs that I have *heard singing*" (meaning *sung*).—It must be noted that the participle of *faire*, to make or do, when thus employed before an infinitive, never changes. Therefore it must be,

Les bergers que j'ai *fait* garder le troupeau,

Les femmes qu'ils ont *fait* chanter,

Ce sont eux que vous avez *fait* faire cela,

The shepherds that I have *made* tend the flock.

The women whom they have *made* sing.

It is they whom you have *made* to do that.

and not *faits* garder, *faites* chanter, *faits* faire.—The participle *été* never changes. The same is the case with *pu* and *fallu*, participles of *pouvoir* and *falloir*. And *voulu*, from *vouloir*, and *dû*, from *devoir*, are seldom declinable.]

There is another exception; but it seems rather matter of taste; good authors differ in opinion about it. I will, however, give an example or two relating to it. The French sometimes put the nominative case *after the verb*; thus: "le taureau *qu'a vendu* Jacques." The usual order of the words is, le taureau *que* Jacques a *vendu*. Now, these authors say that when the nominative is placed thus, after the verb, the participle is indeclinable; as:

Le taureau *qu'a vendu* Jacques,

La vache *qu'a vendu* Jacques,

Les taureaux, *qu'a vendu* Jacques,

the bull that James has sold.

the cow that James has sold.

the bulls that James has sold.

[In this form of expression, MARMONTEL thus makes the participle to agree with the noun: "une bonne leçon qu'a reçue notre misanthrope" (a good lesson that our misanthrope has received). CORNEILLE uses the participle without such agreement: "les misères que durant notre enfance ont enduré nos pères" (the miseries which, during our infancy, our fathers have endured.)]

If the nominative had gone before the verb, the participle *must* have changed its form; as:

Le taureau que Jacques a vendu,
La vache que Jacques a vendue,
Les vaches que Jacques a vendues.

The same authors insist that when there comes, next after the participle, a noun in the objective case, or an adjective relating to the noun or pronoun which has gone before, the participle ought not to change its form. MONSIEUR RESTAUT gives this example: "Dieu *les* avait créé *innocents*." The *les* (them) would require *créés*; but those authors say that the adjective *innocent*, coming after the participle, and having relation to *les*, the participle ought not to change its form. However, this seems to be a disputed point; we may adopt either the one manner or the other; and I have mentioned this matter here only to enable you to account for what might otherwise appear strange to you. I here conclude my remarks on the passive participle. They are long; but the matter is of uncommon importance. Every page of French print contains, in general, many of these words. When you are about to use one of them, you cannot, as in the case of the gender of nouns, get your information from the Dictionary. You must have it, if you have it at all, from principles and rules.—

I shall now give you an Exercise relating to the *Modes of Verbs*, which, of course, include the Participles.

EXERCISE XVI.

1. She is not rich enough to live without working.
2. He did that to provoke his brothers and sisters.
3. They will be too wise to prevent the land from being cultivated.
4. What does he deserve for having betrayed his country to its most deadly enemy?
5. Coming here has made the fortunes of thousands of adventurers.
6. Putting up a house on that barren spot of land is very unwise.
7. Study constantly if you be in good health.
8. Give to the poor rather than take from them.
9. Little means as she may have, she makes a pretty good figure.
10. It is for you to talk to them about an affair which belongs to you.
11. It is very proper for you to take effectual means to punish him.
12. He is exceedingly addicted to the shameful vice of gaming.
13. I am tired of living here and doing nothing.
14. Go and tell my bailiff to come to me as soon as he can.
15. Go and inquire about our neighbour who was so ill the other day.
16. They greatly rejoice at your victory over your enemies.
17. By going to London you will gain a great deal.

18. In minding your business you will make yourself and your parents happy.
19. I wish with all my heart that you may do it.
20. I know nothing more fortunate than that.
21. It is better for a country to be destroyed than for it to be governed by wicked men.
22. It was better for him to go on horseback than to ride in a coach.
23. It is of great consequence that they should explicitly declare themselves.
24. I do not believe that the weather will be fine to-morrow.
25. If the fine weather begin and continue for some time.
26. He is the greatest rogue in the whole world.
27. Coming to England has saved his life.
28. Going to France, in the summer time, is very pleasant.
29. Mowing, or reaping, is hard work.
30. It does not become you to be very nice about it.
31. Whatever they may say about it, it is a bad affair.
32. I know nothing more provoking than that.
33. Few things are more dishonourable than lying.
34. Drinking to excess soon makes a man despised.
35. Eating, drinking, and sleeping, are necessary.
36. I am very sorry that your brother is not come.
37. Why should he not come next week?
38. It seems that they set off very early in the morning.
39. Is it well known that the town is taken?
40. It is well known that the town is taken.
41. It is clear as day-light that the evil will come.
42. It is not quite clear that the evil will come.

43. It was evident that he could not defend himself.
44. It was not evident that he could not defend himself.
45. It seems to me that you are in the wrong.
46. It seems that he is in the wrong.
47. It is not just, nor is it decent, that he should do that.
48. Do you believe that you will come next Saturday?
49. Would to God that he were well!
50. Were you to lose your fortune you ought to go.
51. God grant that she may recover her health!
52. You say that she will recover: God send it!
53. I hope she will not die. God forbid!
54. God forbid that I should do any such thing!
55. What! should we pardon them for that?
56. What do you want me to do?
57. I want you to rise early and to be industrious.
58. I want a good saw; do you think that I shall find one?
59. I think that you will not find one in this village.
60. I do not doubt you will find one in the town.
61. They must be very industrious if they suppress him.
62. I do not doubt of that, I confess.
63. I doubt that he will do it.
64. I doubt that he will not do it.
65. I do not believe that she will come next week.
66. His talking to them has done the mischief.
67. Their babbling has made their master angry.
68. The singing of birds is very delightful.
69. What I like best in birds is their singing.
70. Though he sell his land, he will not be ruined.
71. He was killed during the last war.

72. The tents have been taken by the enemy.
73. The tents which the enemy has taken.
74. What tents has he taken?
75. He has taken all the tents that we had.
76. I am surprised that you have done it.
77. They are writing in my room.
78. You have lost your money by not having asked
for it.
79. It is very indecent to behave in this manner.
80. My father is seeking for a large and fine farm.
81. They are very angry that you have been able to
do it.
82. They insist absolutely that she shall stay no longer.
83. We were all very much surprised.
84. There are four men planting trees.
85. I see the greyhounds running after the hare.
86. Bring us some good and hot coffee.
87. Let us have a large and fat leg of mutton.
88. I am far from saying or from thinking that she
will die.
89. There he is coming to ask you how you do.
90. This is my whip; there is yours; and there is
theirs.
91. Do you suppose that I will give you my house and
furniture for nothing?
92. The corn was sold in the market.
93. The apples were sold to him.
94. The oxen were sold last week.
95. The cows have been sold this week.

LETTER XXIV.

SYNTAX OF VOULOIR, POUVOIR, AND DEVOIR.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

444. Before you enter on the subject of this letter, look at paragraphs 424 and 425. Indeed, you must not only look at them, but read them with attention. You see, then, that the different endings, the differences in the form, of the French verbs, *are not always sufficient* to express, in French, that which is expressed in English by our little words, which are called *signs*, and which are, *shall, will, can, could, might, should, would, and ought*. We have *must* besides; but that is, as we have seen, answered by the *il faut* of the French. Let us take an example of this insufficiency:

I <i>shall</i> come here to-morrow,	je <i>viendrai</i> ici demain.
I <i>will</i> come here to-morrow,	je <i>viendrai</i> ici demain.

Thus, you see, there is only the one French word, *viendrai*, to answer to *shall come*, and *will come*, and we all know how different these are in their *meanings*. When I say, *I shall come*, I simply tell you of my *intention*; but *will come* expresses my *resolution*, or, at least, a *promise*, or *assurance*, on my part. Yet the French verb has no change to express this difference. Their verb does for the simple telling or announcing; but, to do justice to *I will*, the French must have some other word, or words, brought in; such as, “*je vous promets*,” or, “*je suis résolu*.”

You <i>shall</i> not have that card,		vous n'aurez pas cette carte.
You <i>will</i> not have that card,		vous n'aurez pas cette carte.

The French verbs are the same, you see, in both cases: but, in the first phrase, I express *my will* and *determination* against your having the card; and, in the second, I merely *foretell* or *observe* that you will not have the card. See, now, how the proper translation of these two English phrases would stand, supposing me to be talking to you.

You <i>shall</i> not have that card,	{ Je ne <i>veux</i> pas que vous ayez cette carte,
	or,
You <i>will</i> not have that card,	{ Je ne vous <i>permettrai</i> pas d'avoir cette carte.
	vous n'aurez pas cette carte.

In the latter case I say, in this French phrase, simply that you *will not* have the card: but, in the other case, I say, *my will is* that you have not the card; or, I will *not permit* you to have the card. So that, you clearly see that the changes in the form of the French verb are by no means sufficient to express that which is expressed in English by our little words. As long as the business of the verb is merely to announce or declare, the French changes answer the purpose pretty well; but, wherever our little words, or *verbal signs*; wherever there is *will*, *permission*, *power*, or *duty* expressed by these signs; there the changes in the form of the French verb fail of being sufficient for the purpose of answering fully and clearly to our verbs.

445. But the French have words which (in great part at least) make up for this deficiency. These are three verbs which express, respectively, *will*, *power*, and *duty*; and which, therefore, are employed to answer (in most cases) to our *will*, and *would*; our *may*, *can*, *could*, and *might*; and our *should* and *ought*. I say *in great part*, in *most cases*; because, there is no complete rule as to the matter. You will observe (and, indeed, you must already have observed in the conjugations),

that VOULOIR, POUVOIR, and DEVOIR are verbs complete in all their parts. In short, you know them perfectly well in all their numbers, persons, times, and modes; and you can, I hope, write down the conjugations of them without looking even at your card of verbs. You will, however, mind now, that VOULOIR means, *to will, to be willing, to desire, to wish, to be determined, to be resolved*, and, when in the negative, it expresses *objection and opposition*. You will mind, also, that POUVOIR means, *to be able, to have power, to have liberty or permission*, to do or to be. Mind, moreover, that DEVOIR, though it means *to owe*, means also *to have the duty of doing or of being*. Now then, mind, that in *general*, these *signs* of ours are answered by some part of these French verbs, as placed in the following table:

will,	}	by some part of <i>vouloir</i> .
would,		
may,	}	by some part of <i>pouvoir</i> .
can,		
could,		
might,		
should,	}	by some part of <i>devoir</i> .
ought,		
shall,	{	sometimes by the change in the verb, and sometimes by some word expressing <i>obligation</i> or <i>permission</i> .

After all, however, you must bear in mind, that it is not *always* that any of these signs are thus turned into French. But you will soon learn (after all that you have learned) to make use of these important French words properly.

446. We will begin with VOULOIR. When we make use of our signs, *'will, would*, the French employ the infinitive of their verb; and they employ some part of *vouloir* to answer to our *will*, or *would*; as:

I will find,	<i>je veux trouver.</i>
I would find,	<i>je voulais trouver,</i>
You will find,	<i>vous voulez trouver.</i>
They will find,	<i>ils veulent trouver.</i>

This is always the manner of turning these signs into French. Our *will* applies to both present and future. I suppose it here to apply to the present, where it expresses *will* or *resolution*, and must be translated by *vouloir*. When it simply *intimates* or *foretells*, the changes in the French verb are sufficient; as:

You will find,		<i>vous trouverez.</i>
He will find,		<i>il trouvera.</i>

The French, you see, take our principal verb; they translate it; they put it in the infinitive; they then put before it a part of the verb *vouloir*, to answer to our *will* or *would*. Thus, in this sentence:

I *will* write in spite of him, | *je veux écrire malgré lui.*

You see, they take our *write* (not our *to write*), and put *écrire* in place of it; and then they put a part of their verb *vouloir*, according to mode, number, and person. If, instead of *will* or *would*, we use any part of *to wish*, *to desire*, *to be willing*, or the like, the French take this verb, and translate it by some part of *vouloir*; as:

I <i>wish</i> him to write to me,	<i>je veux qu'il m'écrive.</i>
I <i>desire</i> him to write,	<i>je veux qu'il écrive.</i>

We may also say, *je souhaite qu'il m'écrive*, *je désire qu'il écrive*: but custom and idiom lean strongly towards *vouloir*. I should observe, before I quit this verb, that when we use the verb *to be willing*, or any expression of the same, or nearly the same, meaning, the French, in rendering the phrase, put *bien* before *vouloir*; as:

I am willing for him to write,	}	je veux <i>bien</i> qu'il écrive.
or,		
I consent to his writing,		
or,		
I like for him to write,		

When we use the verb *to have* with *will* or *would*, the French use *vouloir* without noticing our *to have*; as: •

We will have him go,	nous <i>voulons</i> qu'il aille.
You would have it so,	vous le <i>vouliez</i> ainsi.
They will always have it their own way,	ils le <i>veulent</i> toujours à leur manière.
I will have it so,	je le <i>veux</i> ainsi.

When we make use of the verb *want* to express *wishing*, or *desiring*, the French render it by *vouloir*; and, in this way, *vouloir* is in very common use; as:

What do you <i>want</i> ?	que <i>voulez-vous</i> ?
I <i>want</i> some bread and some wine,	je <i>veux</i> du pain et du vin, s'il
if you please,	vous plaît.
I <i>want</i> to see fine weather,	je <i>voudrais</i> voir du beau temps.
She does not know what she <i>wants</i> .	elle ne sait ce qu'elle <i>veut</i> .

Very numerous are the uses of the verb *vouloir*; but what has been here said respecting it, will, I trust, be sufficient.

447. **POUVOIR.** This verb, besides being a verb, is a *noun*, meaning *power*. As a verb, its meaning has just been described in paragraph 445. The verb *pouvoir* means, then, in general, *to be able*. Our *may*, *might*, *can*, and *could*, are all translated into French by *pouvoir*. Great care is necessary, in foreigners, to distinguish when one of these is to be used in *English*, and when the other; but there is no difficulty in turning them into French, seeing that they are all rendered into that language by one and the same verb; and, as to the circumstances of time and mode and person, the French verb changes its form as in other cases. It is,

in fact, the conjugation of *pouvoir*, with another verb; *pouvoir*, like *vouloir*, being used in this case instead of

Examples:

You *may* come next week,

vous *pourrez* venir la semaine prochaine.

He *may* go away when he will,

il *peut* s'en aller quand il voudra.

They *can* read and write very well,

ils *peuvent* lire et écrire fort bien.

We *could* not come yesterday,

nous ne *pûmes* venir hier.

They *might* be rich if they *would*,

ils *pourraient* être riches s'ils le *vou-*

laient.

If he *can* come I shall be glad of it,

s'il *peut* venir j'en serai bien aise.

Thus, then, it is merely conjugating the verb *pouvoir*, as in the case of *vouloir*, and putting the French principal verb in the infinitive. This verb, like *vouloir*, is in constant use; as, indeed, it must, from the nature of its functions, necessarily be. It is often employed to express *capability*, *possibility*, and the like; and in many other cases which have nothing to do with *can*, *could*, *may*, and *might*; or, at least, where they are not employed in English; as:

That is not possible,

cela ne *se peut*.

He was quite done for,

il n'en *pouvait* plus.

What is possible,

cela *est possible*, or, cela *se peut*.

These are odd expressions. Such they appear to us; but they are correct, and they are lively and smooth. However, they forcibly characterize this verb *pouvoir*. Again:

Can he come?

peut-il venir?

May he ride your horse?

peut-il monter votre cheval?

Could he ride your horse?

pouvait-il monter votre cheval?

Could he not ride my horse?

ne *pouvait-il* pas monter mon cheval?

Mind, in some cases, *savoir* is employed synonymously with *pouvoir*. In this sense *savoir* means *to know how*; and, if you observe, *to know how* to do a thing is, in English, nearly the same thing as *to be able* to do it; as:

I know how to make books, je *sais* faire des livres.

or •
I *am able* to make books, *je peux* faire des livres.

But it is *pouvoir* that you are to look to for the answering to our signs, *may, might, can, and could*. When an English phrase, having either of these words in it, is to be put into French, look to *POUVOIR*.

448. We now come to DEVOIR, which answers to our *should* and *ought*: or, at least, to *should* generally, and to *ought* always. *Devoir* means *to owe*, and our *ought* is, doubtless, a part of our verb *to owe*; for what is “I *ought* to go,” but “I *owe* to go?” The origin of *should* is less evident; but the main difference in the two is, that *ought* takes the *to* after it before a verb, and that *should* does not. This shuts out *should* from being used before infinitives, and *ought* from being used before the other parts of the verb. But, in the eye of the French language they appear to be of equal merit and power, for DEVOIR answers to both; as:

You *ought* to be obedient to your master, } vous *devriez* obéir à votre
 You *should* be obedient to your master, } maître.

There is, however, this difference in these two English verbal signs; that *ought* always implies *duty*, while *should* does not always do this: and, which is the material point for us, *ought* must always have *devoir* to answer to it, while *should* may be rendered by a change in the form of the French verb; as:

If he *should* travel in Spain, s'il *voyageait* en Espagne.
If he *ought* to travel in Spain, s'il *devait voyager* en Espagne.

Devoir is made use of sometimes for *must*. It is in cases where *must* does not imply any command or necessity; as, "you *must* be very hungry," "*vous devez*

“avoir grand faim.” You may say, in French, “*il faut* que vous ayez grand faim.” One may be as good as the other; but observe this phrase, “*il doit* se marier demain.” You cannot say, as a translation to this, “he *must* be married to-morrow.” Neither will *should* nor *ought* do. The real English of it is, “he *is to be* married to-morrow.” You see that these verbs are of great importance. They answer to whole English phrases in many instances. They are of more consequence than hundreds of other verbs. They are amongst the pivots on which the French language turns. To this knowledge that I have of their importance you have to ascribe this present LETTER, which, when I have added a short Exercise to it, will, I trust, leave you with very little to do in the learning of the French language.

EXERCISE XVII.

1. Now I will give you the seventeenth Exercise.
2. Shall it be a long one, or a short one?
3. If I should find your son, I will send him home.
4. He would soon make a fortune, if he might work the mines.
5. Would you soon make a fortune if you might soon work them?
6. I cannot ride that wicked horse without breaking my neck.
7. You and he might take that liberty, but she might not.
8. She ought not to do it at any rate.
9. You should give him that farm.
10. If he could give it to them he would do it.
11. He will go from this place, and his brother shall go.

12. We shall sell our corn and wine, and they shall sell theirs.
13. They shall have all that I ought not to keep.
14. I am very willing to let you stay here.
15. But I am unable to give you victuals and drink.
16. Can that be? What can he want with me?
17. What do they want with us?
18. Is it possible that they want our money?
19. Can there be such wicked people in the world?
20. Did they wish to see the town on fire?
21. Will you have some kidney-beans, or some peas?
22. I do not want any of either.
23. What do you wish to have, then?
24. Shall she have some flowers?
25. Does she desire to have any of those that I sowed?
26. Would to God that they would get up early!
27. God forbid that I should have a parcel of sluggards in my house
28. Though it were to cost me my life.
29. Might he not have asked her what she meant?
30. He might have done it, but she might have refused to answer.
31. Ought you not to compel him to answer?
32. Is there a road to be found equal to that?
33. Are there not a great many questions here?
34. Can you find more in a similar space, in any book?
35. Can they be angry with me?
36. Will there be eggs for supper?
37. My eyes will be dim?
38. Shall I make a knot in the string?
39. His heart would ache if he were to lose his cause.
40. There ought to be 400 leaves in the book.
41. You shall gather some flowers.

42. They will be in mourning next week.
43. His eye will be cured soon. 'c
44. I wish they would come without delay.
45. He might go, if he would.
46. They may come whenever they please.
47. He was to have gone off for Paris last week.
48. You shall tell them what you think of it.
49. It may happen that they will go.
50. It may happen that they cannot write.
51. Can she come? May be so.
52. You ought not to take it.

LETTER XXV.

SYNTAX OF ADVERBS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

449. In paragraph 37 I explained to you the nature of *Adverbs*; and, in paragraphs 142 to 151 inclusive, I gave you rules for the *forming* of the words of this part of speech. You will now read all those paragraphs over again, and pay strict attention to what you find in them.

450. I have, in this place, only to make a remark or two as to the *placing* of the adverb in sentences. The place of the French adverb is, in *many* cases, the same as that of our adverb, but *not in all* cases. It generally comes after a verb and before an adjective; as:

Ils travaillent *bien*,
Le vin est très-bon,

they work *well*.
the wine is *very good*.

451. When the French verb is in the infinitive, the adverb is sometimes put before it, when it is not before it in English; as, “pour *bien* faire,” in order to do *well*. But this is very rarely the case.

452. When adverbs are *compound*, that is to say, consist of *more than one word* (as was before fully explained), they follow the verb invariably. There is, and there can be, no difficulty attending the use of this part of speech. The only difference worth notice in the two languages, with respect to the using of the adverb, is this; the French hardly ever put the adverb *before the verb*, and we often do it; as, “j’écris *souvent*,” and not, as we say, “je *souvent* écris,” I *often* write.

[With the compound times of verbs, the adverb in French generally stands next after the auxiliary; as, "je n'ai *jamais* fait cela," I have never done that; "nous l'avons *toujours* trouvé," we have always found him.]

EXERCISE XVIII.

1. They, at this moment, do not know it.
2. They do not now go on horseback.
3. It is the fashion now-a-days to go on foot.
4. I will do it directly.
5. She came yesterday, and also the day before.
6. Formerly there were trees in that field.
7. They told me of it before.
8. You must come hither to-morrow.
9. I beg you to write to me very soon.
10. I often eat cherries and apples.
11. They will very soon finish their work.
12. We shall write to-morrow or next day.
13. He will go shortly to see his father.
14. The affair will be ended next week.
15. Where have they been this long while?
16. Give them some food from time to time.
17. Whence come all these people?
18. What do they all come hither for?
19. What induces them to come this way?
20. It is easier for them to go that way.
21. They set out thence every day at one o'clock.
22. When you go up stairs, stay there.
23. He is to be found nowhere.
24. There is too much water in your wine.
25. Perhaps you will see him by-and-by.
26. They said it in jest, but it is too true.

27. They are constantly writing and reading.
28. She was taken away by force.
29. That is extremely wicked on their part.
30. You speak at random.
31. How often have you been there.
32. How far is it to the wheat-field?
33. I very well know what you mean.

LETTER XXVI.

SYNTAX OF PREPOSITIONS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

453. It is almost mere matter of form to make separate divisions relating to the Syntax of these indeclinable parts of speech. The words belonging to them are nothing of themselves: they cannot be used without nouns, pronouns, and verbs; and therefore, in treating of the Syntax of these, I have, in fact, treated of that of *Prepositions*.

454. Go back, however, to paragraph 38; and also to the whole of Letter XI., including paragraphs from 152 to 161. Pay attention to what you there find, and there is little to add here. The business of Syntax is, first, to teach us how to make our words *agree* with each other in sentences. There can be no disagreement in the case of prepositions; for they never change their form. Then, as to *government*, prepositions; when put before nouns and pronouns, cause them to be in the objective case. But this has been most amply explained in the letters relating to nouns and pronouns. As to the *placing* of the prepositions in the sentence, there is no difference worthy of notice in the two languages. We say *in* the house, *for* the horse, *to* the town, *against* the door, *upon* the floor; and the French say, *dans* la maison, *pour* le cheval, *à* la ville, *contre* la porte, *sur* le plancher. There are certain French prepositions, which, in different cases, must be rendered in English in a different manner. It is nearly the

same with regard to our prepositions when rendered in French. I have before noticed, that while we say, think *of* a thing, the French say, think *to* a thing. But, to notice *all the instances* of difference between the two languages would require a book ten times as large as the French and English Dictionary in quarto. It would, besides, be to load the memory in vain; seeing that all the difficulties arising from this cause are speedily removed by practice.

EXERCISE XIX.

1. Have you thought of the affair that I spoke to you of?
2. Yes; but I do not know what to do about it.
3. Whose book is that? It is John's or his sister's.
4. The house must be built by next Christmas.
5. They fought with bayonets and swords.
6. You enjoy your riches.
7. They live near to your country-house.
8. You ought to obey your master.

I give these few instances merely to warn you against *literal* translation. You will see that the French say, near *of* your house; and obey *to* your master; and enjoy *of* your riches. But a short time will give you a complete knowledge of all these matters.

[NOTE.—See what has before been said of prepositions, in paragraphs 156, 158, 159, 376, and in paragraph 431 and those immediately following.—Prepositions serve to denote the different *relations* or *bearings* which the things expressed by other parts of speech have as to one another, particularly in nouns and pronouns, in reference to verbs, and, as regards

verbs, when the action of one verb has relation to that expressed by another. The 'meanings, therefore, which the preposition may convey, are of too great a variety to be all reduced to rule, or to be explained in a brief compass. The following remarks, nevertheless, will be found useful, by preparing the learner for some things of importance which will be met with in French.

FIRST. The prepositions most requiring explanation are, *DE* and *À*. These two are constantly occurring. Each of them, in its peculiar way, represents our *to*, while *DE* also represents our *of* and *from*, and *À* our *at*, and occasionally our *for*.

SECOND. There are many cases where, two verbs coming immediately together, the second is in the infinitive. Generally, here, the French requires *de* or *à* between these, in the sense of our *to*. But with certain verbs there is no preposition before the French infinitive. This is the case after *aimer mieux*, to like better, or to prefer, *valoir mieux*, to be better or preferable, and after *aller*, *savoir*, *pouvoir*, *devoir*, *falloir*, *oser*, *espérer*, and a few others; as:

J'aime mieux *rester*,
Il vaut mieux *attendre*,
Vous allez *voir*,
Ils savent *faire*,
Elle peut *venir*,
Elles doivent *parler*,

I prefer *to remain*.
It is better *to wait*.
You are going *to see*.
They know how *to make*.
She can, or is able *to come*.
They ought *to speak*.

THIRD. Generally speaking, however, the French infinitive does require the preposition. And there are a good many cases in which the second verb, according to the sense of the first, may be preceded by either *de* or *à*; as:

Tâcher <i>de</i> , or <i>à</i> ,	To endeavour, or try <i>to</i> .
Déterminer <i>de</i> , or <i>à</i> ,	To determine <i>to</i> .
Commencer <i>de</i> , or <i>à</i> ,	To begin <i>to</i> .
Continuer <i>de</i> , or <i>à</i> ,	To continue <i>to</i> .
Obliger <i>de</i> , or <i>à</i> ,	To oblige <i>to</i> .
Forcer <i>de</i> , or <i>à</i> ,	To force <i>to</i> .
Manquer <i>de</i> , or <i>à</i> ,	To fail <i>to</i> .

The difference in idea between these two forms of speech is sometimes very nice. And yet there is a difference. In either case, with *de* or with *à*, the first verb always denotes an action having reference to the action of the second verb, there being but one actor, that is, the same nominative, for the two verbs. But, with *de*, the first verb is rather confined to expressing some motion towards, about, or in respect of the second act; while, with *à*, the first verb represents the actor as more positively engaged in or at that second act; as :

Je tâcherai <i>de</i> vous plaire,	I will endeavour <i>to</i> please you.
Il tâche <i>à</i> vous tromper,	He endeavours <i>to</i> deceive you.

Here the first endeavour is stated as that of one having the purpose to please; the second, as that of one doing the act of deceiving. “Il s’ennuie *de* lire,” means that he is tired *of* reading, that is, of the practice or pursuit. “Il s’ennuie *à* lire” may be translated by the same English words; but this, with *à*, more properly means that he is tired in the act of reading, or while at it.

FOURTH. Some verbs, followed by no preposition in English, must in French have *de* or *à* before the noun or pronoun which is their immediate object: as, *jouir de*, to enjoy, *abuser de*, to abuse, *se défier de*, to mistrust, *se rappeler de*, to remember. Most of these require the preposition *à*: as, *plaire à*, to please, *ressembler à*, to resemble; and so with *demandeur*,

ordonner, résister, renoncer, survivre, inspirer, reprocher, obéir.—*Obéir, satisfaire*, and a few others, may be used either with or without the *à*.

FIFTH. With some verbs the French *à* answers to our *of, about, to, for, in, or on*: as in *penser à*, to think of or about; *croire à*, to believe in, or give credence to; *pourvoir à*, to provide for; *se fier à*, to confide in or rely on.

SIXTH. As to *de*, again, though we shall find a number of verbs with which our *of* is regularly represented by this French word, as in *avertir de*, to advise or warn of, *accuser de*, to accuse of, *priver de*, to deprive of, *se plaindre de*, to complain of, *se repentir de*, to repent of: yet there are others with which the two languages do not answer to one another in this simple and exact way. With a vast number of this latter class the French *de* is used in place of all our various words *of, at, for, by, with, in, and on*; as:

Se venger <i>de</i> ,	To be revenged <i>of, or for</i> .
Rire, ou sourire <i>de</i> ,	To laugh, or to smile <i>at</i> .
S'étonner <i>de</i> ,	To be astonished <i>at, or with</i> .
Manquer <i>de</i> ,	To be wanting <i>in, or of</i> .
Consoler <i>de</i> ,	To console <i>for</i> .
Suffoquer <i>de</i> ,	To choke <i>with</i> .
Mourir <i>de</i> ,	To die <i>of, with, or from</i> .
Blâmer <i>de</i> ,	To blame <i>for</i> .
Se fâcher <i>de</i> ,	To be sorry <i>for, or angry with</i> ,
S'amuser <i>de</i> ,	To be amused <i>at, by, or with</i> .
Se réjouir <i>de</i> ,	To rejoice <i>at, or in</i> .
Orner <i>de</i> ,	To ornament <i>with</i> .
Fournir <i>de</i> ,	To furnish <i>with</i> .
Profiter <i>de</i> ,	To profit <i>by, or in</i> .
Couvrir <i>de</i> ,	To cover <i>with</i> .
Munir <i>de</i> ,	To provide <i>with</i> .
Vêtir <i>de</i> ,	To dress <i>with, or in</i> .
Remplir <i>de</i> ,	To fill <i>with</i> .
Armer <i>de</i> ,	To arm <i>with</i> .
Nourir <i>de</i> ,	To feed <i>with, or on</i> .

With the adjectives also, whether they be formed of the passive participles or otherwise, the *de* of the French performs the same office; as, *plein de*, full of; *rempli de*, filled with; *orné de*, decked with; *content de*, content with; *choqué de*, shocked with, or at.

SEVENTH. Lastly, as respects *à* used in the sense of our *to*, and *de* in the sense of our *from*, there is one important difficulty to be noticed; namely, when, with certain French verbs, these two prepositions seem to have but one meaning, though in reality they have two very distinct meanings. This happens with the verbs signifying the various acts of abstracting or removing one object from another object. Those verbs are *ôter*, to take away, *emporter*, to take or snatch away, or off, *enlever*, to take or carry off, *arracher*, to tear away, wrest, or extort, *dérober*, to rob, or deprive, *voler*, to rob or steal, and *ravir*, to take away by force. The rule is, that when the French want merely to express the act of removing, *de* suffices for that purpose. But they constantly use *à* instead, because, by that word, they can express an idea which our *from* does not at all convey. When using *à*, they not only intimate the taking of the one object, but the idea of deprivation to, or of the taking being done with respect to, the other object; that is, of that other object's being an *endurer*. or *object* of the act. For example:

Ôtez le dîner <i>du</i> feu,	Take the dinner <i>from</i> the fire.
Ôtez ce couteau <i>à</i> cet enfant,	Take that knife <i>from</i> that child.
La porte fut arrachée <i>de</i> ses gonds	The door was torn <i>from</i> its hinges.
La couronne fut arrachée <i>au</i> roi,	The crown was wrested <i>from</i> the king.

Some have tried to explain this apparent inconsistency by contending that the meanings of the *de* and the *à*

are here the same. That, however, is shown to be impossible, because, as we have seen, the pronouns (*me, te, se, nous, vous, lui, leur*) include in themselves the sense of *à*, but not that of *de*. For instance, when FLORIAN is speaking of the Goths in Spain, he says,

<p>‘La prospérité et les richesses <i>leur</i> <i>donnèrent</i> des vices, et <i>leur</i> ô- <i>rent</i> la valeur guerrière,’</p>	<p>Prosperity and riches <i>gave</i> (to) <i>them</i> vices, and <i>took from</i> (to) <i>them</i> their warlike valour.</p>
--	--

That is, both these verbs, *ôter* as well as *donner*, are to be understood in the French with the sense of our *to*, because, with each, there is the idea of an act done to the Goths, who are at once objects of the act of giving and objects of the act of taking away. The same with the examples of the *child* and the *king*. But it is different with the other two examples; because the *fire* is not mentioned as being deprived of the dinner, nor the hinges as objects affected by the tearing of the door. —Even the word *prendre*, to take, may be used in these two distinct ways. And so may the verbs *soustraire*, to avoid, or flee from, *échapper*, to escape from, *disparaître*, to disappear or abscond, *cacher*, to hide or conceal, *masquer*, to mask or screen, *s'évader*, to evade or steal away, and *éviter*, to shun or elude. So the French say, “*se soustraire à la poursuite*,” to avoid pursuit, “*se cacher à la justice*,” to hide *from* justice; “*échapper à ses ennemis*,” to escape from one's enemies.]

LETTER XXVII.

SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

455. The remarks made in paragraph 453 apply in this case also. Every thing relative to conjunctions has been taught in the Etymology of Conjunctions, and in the Syntax of the other parts of speech, especially that of Verbs. You must go back, however, to paragraph 39, and to the whole of Letter XII., consisting of paragraphs from 162 to 167 inclusively. Those parts contain a full account of this part of speech. Conjunctions have a government of *modes* of verbs; but this matter is, you know, most amply explained in the Syntax of Verbs, particularly in paragraphs from 414 to 422. All that I shall, therefore, add upon this subject is, a short Exercise, consisting of phrases which must, in French, have a turn very different from that which they have in English.

EXERCISE XX.

1. Whether you do it, or not, I shall come.
2. A great building either of brick or of stone.
3. Either from love or from fear, he praised them.
4. If they should die what would become of us ?
5. If they should consent to it, what will you say ?
6. When you write, let me know it.
7. When they come they will remain a long while.
8. If you wish to go, and will come hither in good time.
9. If they desire to have it, and will pay for it.
10. Even if he were to give his whole fortune.

LETTER XXVIII.

TRANSLATION OF THE EXERCISES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

456. The Translation of the Exercises is given, in order that you, when you have finished *your* translation of an Exercise, may refer to *this* translation, in order to see *whether you have done your work correctly*. But, mind, it would be mere childishness to be looking at this translation, until you have *finished* an Exercise. When you have finished an Exercise, and consulted with your Grammar as to every phrase in it, then *make a fair copy of it*: look at it attentively over and over again; and when you have made it what you look upon as complete; when you have put all the points, all the accents, every thing; then *turn to this translation*, and "compare your translation with it, phrase by phrase.

EXERCISE I.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Cent livres, cinq schelins. | 11. Un bon poète, mais pas un |
| 2. Des plumes à 6s. le cent. | Boileau. |
| 3. Des canards à dix sous la | 12. Il est médecin, et son frère est |
| pièce. | procureur. |
| 4. Avez-vous entendu parler de | 13. Il est riche, chose qu'il aime. |
| rien de semblable? | 14. Il est arrivé rarement quelque |
| 5. Si un tel vient. | chose de semblable. |
| 6. Mille soldats ont péri. | 15. Un tel défaut est méprisable. |
| 7. Cent sont de retour. | 16. Quel bruit! Quelle belle fleur! |
| 8. C'est un si bon père. | 17. La jolie fille qu' Emma! |
| 9. Un jardin avec un mur d'un | 18. Que son père est riche? |
| côté. | 19. Que l'argent a de charmes! |
| 10. On voit rarement un homme | 20. Quel cri horrible! Quel sot |
| si méchant. | de garçon! |

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| 21. Une telle faute m'étonne. | 24. Une caisse de livres. Un |
| 22. La barbe d'un Juif. Un cheval | livre et une fleur. |
| Barbe. | 25. Un jardinier et un laquais. |
| 23. Une poule avec un poussin. | Cent conteneurs. |
| Un voile et une voile. | 26. Une heure et demi. Une |
| | demi-heure. |

EXERCISE II.

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| 1. L'Amérique, l'Asie, l'Afrique, | 25. Le Capitaine White est parti. |
| et l'Europe. | 26. Comment vous portez-vous, |
| 2. La Prusse fait partie de l'Alle- | M. le Capitaine? |
| magne. | 27. Les poires sont mûres en Au- |
| 3. Venise, Valence, Grenade. | tomne. Les oiseaux chan- |
| 4. Il vient de la Rochelle. | tent dans le printemps |
| 5. Il demeure au Havre-de- | 28. Le Docteur Johnson craignait |
| Grâce. | la mort. |
| 6. Il est parti pour Cayenne. | 29. La reine Elizabeth et le Pape |
| 7. Je demeure en Angleterre. | Sixte. |
| 8. Vous venez du Portugal. | 30. Les grolles mangent du blé. |
| 9. Ils résident à la Martinique. | Les garçons tuent les |
| 10. Elle va en Italie. | grolles. |
| 11. La Tamise. Le Rhin. | 31. Les philosophes ne s'accordent |
| 12. La Severn. La Seine. | pas. |
| 13. L'ivrognerie est détestable. | 32. Il est à la campagne. Elle |
| 14. Le meurtre mérite la mort. | était en ville. |
| 15. De la mer à la surface, en- | 33. Dieu, le ciel, et l'enfer. |
| suite de la terre glaise, et | 34. Les jardins ont un aspect |
| puis de la craie. | au printemps. |
| 16. L'orge est chère cette année. | 35. Les fleurs se fanent en été. |
| 17. Les chevaux mangent de | Elles meurent en automne. |
| l'herbe et du foin. | 36. L'amour faisait le sujet de la |
| 18. Le cheval est un animal | lettre. |
| utile. | 37. Les pommes sont un bon fruit. |
| 19. Les oiseaux volent; les faucons | 38. Les pommes ne sont pas chères |
| volent. Les faucons tuent | cette année. |
| les autres oiseaux. | 39. Du pain, de la viande, de la |
| 20. Il vient de la Chine. L'été | farine, du beurre. |
| est passé. | 40. La terre, l'air, le feu et l'eau; |
| 21. Le drapeau d'Angleterre. Le vin | tous s'allient. |
| de Bourgogne. | 41. L'air est froid aujourd'hui. |
| 22. Les chevaux de Flandres. Les | L'hiver approche. |
| vaches de Normandie. | 42. Le fromage est très rare. Les |
| 23. Les arbres viennent bien dans | renards tuent les poules. |
| les étés favorables. | 43. Je préfère le noir au bleu. |
| 24. Je vois que les arbres viennent | 44. Il aime la chasse. L'exercice |
| bien. | est bon pour l'homme. |

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| 45. Les hommes prudents évitent les querelles. | 52. Les Américains partagent les jacs avec les Anglais. |
| 46. Les oiseaux chantent tandis que les paresseux ronflent. | 53. Ils vont au Canada. |
| 47. L'homme, venez ici ! la femme, allez par-là ! | 54. La Nouvelle Écosse est un pays froid. |
| 48. La lumière et l'obscurité, la chaleur et le froid. | 55. Le maïs vient bien en France. |
| 49. Les articles forment une partie du discours. | 56. Le tabac est une production de la Virginie. |
| 50. Il a des bras. Il a des cheveux noirs. | 57. Le coton vient de la Géorgie. |
| 51. Les Hollandais font le commerce. | 58. De la Floride et du Brésil. |
| | 59. Les Péruviens ont de l'or en abondance. |
| | 60. Les Mexicains ont de l'argent en grande quantité. |

EXERCISE III.

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| 1. Il a du foin à vendre. Il a du foin dans sa charrette. | 18. Combien de terre ? Beaucoup de chagrin. |
| 2. Le foin est abondant. Le foin est cher cette année. | 19. Beaucoup de plaisir. Beaucoup de patience. Beaucoup de peine. |
| 3. Elle porte de la soie. La soie est très légère. | 20. Ce sont de bien honnêtes gens. |
| 4. A-t-il des chevaux ? Oui, il en a quelques-uns. | 21. Il y a maintenant beaucoup de choux. |
| 5. Ont-ils des oiseaux ? | 22. Des oignons et du persil dans le jardin. |
| 6. Les chiens aboient. Il a des chiens. | 23. Le pommier est une guirlande lorsqu'il est en fleur. |
| 7. J'entends du bruit. J'entends beaucoup de bruit. | 24. Les cerisiers sont aussi très beaux. |
| 8. Il y en a six de blancs et deux de noirs. | 25. Les poires sont à bon marché cette année-ci. |
| 9. Cinq de tués et un de blessé. | 26. Les touffes de framboisiers n'ont rien de remarquable. |
| 10. Ils ont de bonne viande. Elle a de beaux yeux. | 27. Mais leur fruit est excellent. |
| 11. Les moutons mangent de l'herbe. J'ai des moutons. | 28. Les épinards et les haricots. |
| 12. Les moutons que j'ai vendus. | 29. Le marché abonde en légumes. |
| 13. Vous aviez du fromage. Tant de livres. | 30. Tout le foin est gâté. |
| 14. Elle aura beaucoup de pain. | 31. Le foin sera cher l'année prochaine. |
| 15. Une quantité de terre. Il y a du danger. | 32. Les haricots sont très abondants. |
| 16. Donnez-nous encore de l'argent. Rien de bien rare. | 33. Les laitues sont bonnes en salade. |
| 17. Fort peu de sagesse. Combien de fenêtres ? | |

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| <p>34. L'huile, le vinaigre, le poivre, le sel, et la montarde sont des choses fort utiles.</p> <p>35. L'huile d'olive est bien meilleure que celle de pavot.</p> <p>36. La première se fait en France et en Italie. [magne.</p> <p>37. La seconde se fait en Allemagne.</p> <p>38. Les pierres ne font point de mal à la terre. Une grande quantité de terre.</p> | <p>39. Les alouettes restent dans les champs. •</p> <p>40. Du poisson, de la viande, de la volaille, du grain, de la farine.</p> <p>41. Nous avons du poisson. Les abricotes n'aiment pas les guêpes. •</p> <p>42. Le miel est très utile dans une famille.</p> |
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EXERCISE IV.

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| <p>1. La maison est grande. Une main et un pied.</p> <p>2. Deux maisons et trois champs. Quatre fils, cinq filles.</p> <p>3. Six enfants, sept amis. Un cheval, une vache, un cochon.</p> <p>4. Huit chevaux, neuf vaches, dix cochons. Onze noix, une noix.</p> <p>5. Un enfant, douze enfants.</p> <p>6. Un engagement. Treize engagements.</p> <p>7. Un fort beau chou. Quatorze choux.</p> <p>8. Un chapeau noir. Quinze chapeaux.</p> <p>9. Beaucoup de richesses.</p> <p>10. Seize hibous. Dix-sept clous.</p> <p>11. Un grand nombre de maux. Un très grand mal.</p> <p>12. L'œil du cheval. Mes yeux sont faibles.</p> <p>13. L'eau est claire. Les eaux de Bath.</p> <p>14. Dix-huit paniers. Dix-neuf bonnets de nuit.</p> <p>15. Vingt portes de jardin. Vingt et un poissons de rivière.</p> <p>16. La tête de loup. Les griffes du chat.</p> <p>17. Le palais du roi. Trente chandeliers d'or.</p> | <p>18. Quarante assiettes d'étain. Cinquante cuillères d'argent.</p> <p>19. Soixante souliers de cuir. Soixante-dix luttes de bois.</p> <p>20. Quatre-vingt pelles-à-fen. Quatre-vingt-neuf agneaux.</p> <p>21. Cent bœufs. Mille oiseaux.</p> <p>22. Dieu est tout-puissant. Les dieux des Grecs.</p> <p>23. Un lieu solitaire. Des lieux solitaires.</p> <p>24. Il a un emploi. A la poste aux lettres.</p> <p>25. Une livre de pain. Un livre pour vous.</p> <p>26. Le page du roi. Une page d'un livre.</p> <p>27. A sa maison. De la rue. Au champ. Aux parcs.</p> <p>28. Chapitre premier. Livre deuxième.</p> <p>29. Entrez, Monsieur. Priez ce monsieur d'entrer.</p> <p>30. Monsieur, j'ai vu les messieurs. Entrez, Messieurs.</p> <p>31. Autant de beaux jardins. Devant le trône.</p> <p>32. Hormis le domestique. Au milieu des buissons.</p> <p>33. Dans les nids d'oiseaux. Depuis Mardi dernier.</p> |
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| 35. Vers Londres. Après le carrosse. | 48. Madame White est morte. |
| 36. Les lords restent ici, avec les dames. | 49. Joseph, Pierre, et quelques amis. |
| 37. Allez, Monsieur l'Impudent. | 50. Une cuillère d'argent pleine de vin. |
| 38. De l'eau de rivière pour faire de la bière. | 51. Un pot plein de bière. |
| 39. Madame, j'ai vu la dame. | 52. Ce sentier a cent pieds de long. |
| 40. Mesdames, je m'en vais. | 53. La mort de sa mère. Le mariage de son fils. |
| 41. Allez chez Monsieur White. | 54. La bonne fortune de son frère. |
| 42. Les propriétés de Guillaume, de Jean, et de Richard. | 55. Il a fait le commerce du cuivre. |
| 43. A qui est cette plume? | 56. Les voitures et les chevaux coûtent de l'argent. |
| 44. La position de ce pays. | 57. Le chêne est un bel arbre. |
| 45. La situation du gouverneur. | 58. Les planches de chêne durent long-temps. |
| 46. La laine des moutons est bonne à faire du drap. | 59. Des ormes dans les haies. |
| 47. Ils parlent de la maison de la dame. | 60. Le mont de sable est haut. |

EXERCISE V.

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| 1. Vous et moi nous allons souper. | 15. Il leur rapporte tout ce que je lui dis. |
| 2. Vous, votre sœur, et moi, nous aurons de l'argent demain. | 16. Elle n'avait aucune affection pour eux. |
| 3. Nous sommes fort heureux dans ce pays, elle et moi. | 17. Les champs leur appartiennent. |
| 4. Ils me frappent aussi bien que lui. | 18. C'est à lui qu'ils parlent toujours. |
| 5. Ils m'aiment aussi bien qu'elle. | 19. Ils les attendent ici aujourd'hui. |
| 6. Puissiez-vous devenir riche. | 20. Donnez-lui quelque chose à manger et à boire. |
| 7. Si vous m'abandonniez pour toujours. | 21. Je vous enverrai des fleurs, elles sont très belles. |
| 8. Oui, repartit-il. Non, dit-il. | 22. Ils (ou elles) nous ont envoyé du fruit aujourd'hui. |
| 9. Je le vois tous les jours, lui et son père. | 23. Ils nous volent et nous insultent. |
| 10. Il leur donne toujours quelque chose à manger. | 24. Il écrit au secrétaire, et lui envoie des messages. |
| 11. Ils dînent très souvent chez nous. | 25. Ils sont plus riches que moi et que lui aussi. |
| 12. Faites cela, je vous prie, à ma considération. | 26. Envoyez-leur un message. |
| 13. Le cheval est à moi, et la vache est à elle. | 27. Arrêtez-le, liez-le, et envoyez-le en prison. |
| 14. Donnez-moi un peu de votre bois. | |

28. Nous mangeons de la viande et nous buvons de l'eau.
 29. Ils s'adressent souvent à nous pour du vin.
 30. Je lui ai donné de l'or pour vous.
 31. Vous les vîtes aller à elle.

EXERCISE VI.

1. Ma main, mes plumes, mon papier, mon encre et mes livres.
2. Vos plumes ne sont pas aussi bonnes que les miennes.
3. Emportez les chaises de ma chambre, et mettez-les dans la sienne.
4. Prenez-les de leur chambre et les mettez dans la mienne.
5. Prenez-les de la mienne et les portez dans la sienne.
6. Leurs bœufs sont plus beaux que les vôtres.
7. Mettez mes bœufs dans leur champ.
8. Ses souliers sont meilleurs que les siens.
9. Nos habits sont bleus, mais les leurs sont rouges.
10. Notre champ, leur prairie, leurs moutons.
11. Vos arbres sont bien plantés.
12. La table est mauvaise: ses pieds sont faibles.
13. Voilà votre carrosse: voici le mien.
14. Mon frère, je vous prie de venir chez moi.
15. Adieu, M. le Capitaine. Je suis bien aise de vous voir, mon voisin.
16. Ces oiseaux sont les miens et ceux-là sont les vôtres.
17. Ton père, ta mère, et tes frères sont morts.
18. Ses frères et ses sœurs sont tous partis.
19. Leurs domestiques viennent ici.
20. Mon père, avez-vous vu son manteau?
21. Approchez-vous, ma sœur, j'ai besoin de vous parler.
22. Non, mon ami, je ne puis vous secourir.
23. Prenez vos moutons et mettez-les avec les miens.
24. Séparez vos poules des miennes.
25. Sa maison, sa maison, notre maison, leur maison, votre maison.
26. Sa main, son bras, nos doigts, leurs jambes, mes pieds.
27. Sa robe, son bonnet, sa tête, son cou, ses dents.
28. Mettez votre foin avec le mien; séparez le vôtre du mien.
29. Il ne parle pas de votre beauté, mais de la mienne.
30. Ils ne parlent pas des siens, mais des nôtres.

EXERCISE VII.

1. Les personnes qui demeurent dans cette rue.
2. Le menuisier qui a ma table.
3. La vache qui pâit dans ma prairie.
4. Les moutons qui sont sur les collines.
5. L'homme dont je prise l'amitié.
6. Le cheval qui conduit leur voiture.

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| 7. Le blé que vous avez vendu au marché. | 24. C'est de vous et de votre fils qu'ils parlent. |
| 8. Le blé qui croit dans vos champs. | 25. Ce ^s sont les dames dont il parlait. |
| 9. Aimez ceux dont vous recevez des bienfaits. | 26. Le monsieur de qui j'ai reçu tant de bontés. |
| 10. Le marchand auquel il doit tant d'argent. | 27. De qui parlez-vous? |
| 11. La compagnie qu'il a reçue ce soir. | 28. Quel homme est-ce? Quel garçon est-ce? |
| 12. L'oiseau qui a vu l'oiseleur. | 29. Laquelle de ces deux chaises aimez-vous mieux? |
| 13. L'oiseau que l'oiseleur a vu. | 30. Lequel de ces trois miroirs préférez-vous? |
| 14. Le siècle dans lequel nous vivons. | 31. L'embarras dont il est sorti. |
| 15. Le monsieur auquel il appartient. | 32. Mon ami qui est mort hier et que j'aimais tant. |
| 16. Le pays que j'aime le mieux. | 33. De quoi parlez-vous? Qu'est-ce? |
| 17. Le temps qui me plaît le plus. | 34. Qui est ce monsieur? |
| 18. L'encre dont je me servis. | 35. Avec quelle flotte est-il venu? |
| 19. Les personnes dont vous me parlatés hier. | 36. Qui vous a dit cela? |
| 20. L'homme qui me déplaît le plus. | 37. Un de ceux qui vinrent la nuit dernière. |
| 21. Que nous voulez-vous? | 38. Un des premiers qui le firent. |
| 22. Que disent-ils à vous et à votre famille? | 39. Le faucon que mon frère a tué. |
| 23. C'est l'affaire dont ils parlaient. | 40. Qui peut dire ce qui peut arriver? |

EXERCISE VIII.

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| 1. Il y a beaucoup de fruit dans ce pays-là. | 10. Ces plumes-ci sont aussi bonnes que celles-là. |
| 2. Ce jardin est bien garni de fleurs. | 11. Ce blé est à bon marché; mais il n'est pas bon. |
| 3. Laquelle de ces fleurs aimez-vous mieux? | 12. Votre terre est aussi bonne que celle de votre voisin. |
| 4. Aimez-vous mieux celle-ci ou celle-là? | 13. Ceux qui pensent qu'ils gagnent à friponner se trompent. |
| 5. C'est moi qui vous ordonne de le faire. | 14. Celui qui se couche tard doit se lever tard. |
| 6. C'est le maître de la maison qui vient. | 15. Celle qui s'occupe trop de sa beauté. |
| 7. C'est un fort beau pays. | 16. Celui qui mène une vie réglée est plus heureux que celui qui vit d'une manière déréglée. |
| 8. C'est grand dommage. | |
| 9. Cette plume-ci est meilleure que celle-là. | |

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| 17. Celui qui n'a point vu ce pays-ci, ne sait pas combien il est beau. | 24. Ces bœufs sont ceux que je préfère. |
| 18. J'aime beaucoup ce que vous avez envoyé. | 25. Ceux que vous avez sont de pauvres animaux. |
| 19. Il nous dit ce qu'il sait sur leur compte. | 26. Ce chien-là paraît être de la même race que celui-ci. |
| 20. Elle rapporte à sa mère tout ce qu'elle entend. | 27. Oui, mais celui-ci est meilleur que celui-là. |
| 21. Ce qui me fait le plus de peine, c'est qu'il ne veut pas me voir. | 28. Cet oiseau chante mieux que celui que vous avez. |
| 22. Il n'y a que ceux qui ne le connaissent pas qui parlent mal de lui. | 29. Ces perdrix sont plus grosses que les perdrix Anglaises. |
| 23. Ceux qui ont toujours vécu dans l'abondance ne savent pas ce que c'est que le faim. | 30. Ces bécasses volent plus rapidement que celles-là. |
| | 31. Lesquelles sont les meilleures à manger? |
| | 32. Celles qui volent vite, ou celles qui volent lentement? |

EXERCISE IX.

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| 1. Tout le monde doit recevoir le salaire de son travail. | 15. Ils s'estimaient l'un l'autre. |
| 2. Tous les hommes doivent être nourris et vêtus. | 16. Tout est vendu dans la maison et enlevé. |
| 3. Chacun va où bon lui semble. | 17. Les moutons sont tous morts. Quoi! tous? |
| 4. Les juges étaient assis, chacun à sa place. | 18. Quiconque prendra ce chemin y tombera. |
| 5. Chacun d'eux donna son opinion sur cette affaire. | 19. Quiconque néglige ses affaires se ruine. |
| 6. Donnez à manger à chacun des deux; mais ne donnez rien au troisième. | 20. Je soutiendrai cela contre qui que ce soit. |
| 7. Tout le monde sait cela, et plusieurs le disent. | 21. Donnez-nous tout, quoi que ce puisse être. |
| 8. Quelques-uns disent qu'il va quitter sa maison. | 22. Il réussit dans tout ce qu'il entreprend. |
| 9. Plusieurs m'ont assuré qu'il vient. | 23. Quoi qu'il en dise, il ne l'échappera pas. |
| 10. Quelques-uns aiment cette manière de voyager. | 24. Quel qu'en soit le prix, vous devez le donner. |
| 11. Quelques-uns sont meilleurs que les autres. | 25. Quel est l'homme qui a volé votre argent? |
| 12. Nous ne devons pas prendre le bien d'autrui. | 26. Je l'ignore, mais qui que ce puisse être, il doit être puni. |
| 13. D'autres ne font pas cela. | 27. L'homme est pris. On ne sait qui c'est; mais qui que ce soit, il sera puni. |
| 14. Il dépense l'argent d'autrui. | |

28. Quelques-uns disent qu'elle sera très riche; d'autres qu'elle ne le sera pas.
29. Quelque riche qu'elle puisse être; quelques richesses qu'elle puisse avoir.
30. Quelques belles maisons et quelques beaux jardins qu'ils aient.
31. Ils ne s'aiment pas, je vous le jure.
32. L'un ou l'autre viendra demain; mais ni l'un ni l'autre ne viendra aujourd'hui.
33. Il n'a rien fait pour moi, et il ne fera rien pour vous.
34. Rien de ce qu'ils entreprennent ne réussit.
35. Personne ne croit cela. Je ne l'ai dit à personne.
36. A-t-on jamais vu rien de pareil auparavant?
37. Pas un de ses gens ne vint hier soir.
38. Pas un des soldats n'échappa à l'ennemi.
39. Avez-vous des poires? Pas une, sur ma parole.
40. Personne n'est venu avec le fruit et le vin.
41. Nous n'aimons point que les autres se mêlent de nos affaires de famille.
42. On dit que vous allez vous marier.
43. On dit qu'il y a une grande récolte de blé.
44. On lui a conseillé de quitter le pays.
45. Nous menons une vie agréable; nous nous levons de bonne heure; nous nous promenons; ensuite nous déjeunons; puis nous faisons une seconde promenade; ou bien nous montons à cheval.
46. Vous pouvez traduire des phrases, telles que celle-ci et la dernière, d'une manière ou de l'autre; c'est-à-dire, avec *on*, avec *nous*, ou avec *vous*.
47. Savez-vous qu'il y a des soldats dans la ville? Oui, car j'en ai vu plusieurs.
48. Quel est ce bruit? Quelle en est la cause?
49. Où sont les dames? Je n'en sais rien.
50. Qu'ont-ils fait de mon épée? Je n'en sais rien.
51. Y a-t-il beaucoup de vaisseaux dans le port? Oui, il y en a plus de cent.
52. Si elle vient de la campagne aujourd'hui, elle y retournera demain.
53. On les loue beaucoup; mais pas plus qu'ils ne le méritent.
54. Ils sont bien pauvres, mais plusieurs de leurs voisins ne le sont pas.
- Est-ce du pain que vous mangez? Oui, c'en est.
56. Voilà mon verre; versez-y du vin.
57. Il a acheté ce domaine: il y visait depuis long-temps.
58. Elle est venue chez elle; elle en repartira demain.
59. Ils ne se soucient de personne que d'eux-mêmes.
60. L'orgueil ne sied à personne. N'enviez point le bien d'autrui.
61. Rien n'est assez bon pour lui.
62. Ils iront l'y joindre.
63. Nous en parlâmes alors.
64. Donnez-leur-en.
65. Envoyez-leur-en.
66. Ils s'en sont venus promptement.
67. Il le dit et il s'y tient.

EXERCISE X.

1. Ils n'y ont pas été depuis quatre ou cinq ans.
2. Je ne vous donnerai pas maintenant d'aussi courtes phrases à traduire que celles que je vous ai données jusqu'à présent.
3. Il y a long-temps que vous n'avez été dans ce pays-là.
4. Je n'ai pas vu l'homme qui vint ici hier-soir.
5. Certainement, je ne vous donnerai pas plus de dix livres sterling.
6. Vous n'aurez été que six ans dans votre bureau.
7. Vous n'avez ni terres ni troupeaux.
8. Ce n'est pas un honnête homme. Ce n'est pas vrai, Monsieur.
9. Il n'y a ni paille ni foin dans le grenier.
10. Je n'ai aucun des arbres que vous m'avez vendus.
11. Je n'avais aucun des bestiaux dont il me parla.
12. Je n'en ai vu aucun depuis quelque temps.
13. Prêtez-moi de l'argent. Je ne saurais, car je n'en ai point.
14. Ont-ils été ici aujourd'hui? Non.
15. Non que je n'aime point les gens de ce pays-là.
16. Non quo je ne puisse y aller, si cela me plaît.
17. Voulez-vous venir avec moi? Non: je ne le veux point.
18. Elle ne sait ni lire ni écrire.
19. Il ne sait ni lire ni écrire.
20. Nous ne mettrons pas à la voile demain, ni peut-être après demain.
21. Ni le maître ni le valet ne seront ici.
22. Ni lui, ni sa femme, ni ses enfants ne jouissent d'une bonne santé.
23. Ils n'ont que vingt acres de terre.
24. Nous ne leur parlons que très rarement.
25. Il n'y a qu'un homme de bien dans la compagnie.
26. Pourquoi n'allez vous pas voir votre terre?
27. Pourquoi habitez-vous continuellement la ville?
28. Il ne fait que causer et chanter.
29. Ils ne savent que faire.
30. Ne vous ai-je pas dit que vous n'entreriez pas?
31. M'avez-vous apporté un sac d'or? Non en vérité.
32. Ce n'est point que le dîner me déplaît, mais je n'aime pas la manière dont on l'apprête.
33. Il ne cesse de parler et de faire du bruit.
34. Ils n'osent faire ce dont ils menacent.
35. Ils ne peuvent venir demain, j'en suis très sûr.
36. Vous ne voulez ni boire ni manger avec nous; et pourquoi pas, mes amis?
37. Pourquoi ne pas vous asseoir, et dîner avec nous?
38. Non: je vous suis très obligé; je ne peux m'arrêter à présent.
39. Eh bien, donc, venez demain. Je ne saurais, vraiment.
40. Ils n'ont que du pain à manger et de l'eau à boire.
41. L'homme ne doit pas vivre de pain seulement.
42. Je ne doute pas qu'il ne vous paie ce qu'il vous doit.

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| 43. Je ne peux écrire si je n'ai pas de lumière. | 55. Je crains qu'il ne vienne pas assez tôt. |
| 44. Je ne lui écrirai pas qu'elle ne m'écrive la première. | 56. Elle appréhende qu'il n'y ait une querelle. |
| 45. Prenez garde qu'on ne vous trompe. | 57. Ils craignent que leur mère ne soit malade. |
| 46. Il y a plus de vin qu'il n'en faut. | 58. Ils ont peur que l'armée n'arrive. |
| 47. Il en dit plus qu'il ne fallait. | 59. Ils craignent que l'armée ne vienne pas. |
| 48. Je les empêcherai de faire du mal dans la campagne. | 60. Ne pas trop parler d'affaire. |
| 49. Je ne nie pas que j'aie dit qu'il était méchant. | 61. Il convient de ne point aller trop vite. |
| 50. Elle est plus vieille qu'on ne pense. | 62. Croyez-vous que ceci soit trop long? Point du tout. |
| 51. Elle est moins riche qu'on ne la croyait. | 63. C'est fort mal à vous de ne pas tenir votre parole. |
| 52. Il est tout autre que je ne le croyais. | 64. Cet été-ci n'est-il pas bien froid? |
| 53. Ils sont plus à leur aise que vous ne pensiez. [tôt. | 65. Pas plus froid que le dernier, quoiqu'assez froid. |
| 54. Je crains qu'il ne vienne trop | |

EXERCISE XI.

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| 1. Parlez-vous de la maison à ces messieurs? | 14. Nous paieront-ils ce qu'ils nous doivent? |
| 2. L'armée, est-elle partie ce matin? | 15. Nous auront-ils tout payé, quand ils nous auront payé dix livres sterling de plus? |
| 3. Le charpentier viendra-t-il demain? | 16. Y auraient-ils pensé? |
| 4. Pourquoi ne vient-il pas tout de suite? | 17. Lui en reste-t-il? |
| 5. Le feu prit-il à la maison lorsque vous étiez en ville? | 18. Me le donnez-vous? |
| 6. Richard ne vient-il pas ce soir? | 19. Le lui dit-elle? |
| 7. Vous frappa-t-il? | 20. Ne le lui dit-il point? |
| 8. Emmèneront-ils votre voiture et vos chevaux. | 21. Vous en parleront-ils? |
| 9. Pensâtes-vous à cela? | 22. Je me lève le matin. |
| 10. Est-ce là votre livre? Oui, c'est mon livre. | 23. Je ne me lève point. |
| 11. Est-ce là votre frère? Oui, c'est lui. | 24. Me levé-je? |
| 12. Parlez-vous très souvent d'elle? | 25. Ne me levé-je pas? |
| 13. Fait-il des recherches pour les marchandises qu'il a perdues? | 26. Ne se lève-t-il pas de bonne heure? |
| | 27. Ne me l'avez-vous pas dit? |
| | 28. Lui a-t-elle dit cela? |
| | 29. Nous l'auront-ils payé? |
| | 30. Vous en auraient-ils parlé? |
| | 31. Cherchâtes-vous votre argent dans sa boîte? |

32. Y en trouvaîtes-vous ? plus de vingt livres sterling.
33. Ne vous frapperont-ils pas ? et ne vous blesseront-ils pas ? 55. N'est-il pas colonel, ou capitaine ?
34. Ne leur en parle-t-il pas ? 56. La flotte tra-t-elle à la Jamaïque ?
35. Ne vous aurait-il pas fait grand tort ? 57. Ne croyez-vous pas qu'il fasse beau ?
36. Ne me le donnez-vous pas ? 58. Vous avez de grandes propriétés sans parler de voire argent comptant.
37. Ne vous appliquez-vous pas à la langue Française ? 59. Jean n'y sera-t-il pas plus tôt qu'il ne faut.
38. Ne le lui dit-elle pas ? 60. Je ne le crois pas.
39. Ne nous le donneront-ils pas ? 61. N'y voyez-vous rien du tout ?
40. Ne vous en parlera-t-il pas ? 62. Ne vous a-t-il pas dit un mot à ce sujet ?
41. Ne me l'avez-vous pas dit ? 63. Ne craignez-vous pas que l'argent ne vienne trop tard ?
42. Ne le lui avait-elle pas dit ? 64. N'ont-ils vu personne aller de ce côté-là ?
43. Le blé vient-il bien dans cette terre ? 65. Est-ce que les laboureurs n'ont que pen à boire et à manger ?
44. Les arbres ne sont-ils pas très beaux dans les bois de l'Amérique ? 66. Celui-là n'est-il pas le plus pauvre, qui a moins à manger et moins de vêtements pour se couvrir ?
45. Non : ils ne sont pas très-beaux dans toutes les parties du pays. 67. Ils ne lui pardonneront jamais, à moins qu'il ne leur demande pardon.
46. Les platanes y sont très-grands ; n'est-ce pas ? 68. Ma chambre n'est-elle pas très-jolie ?
47. Ne vous en aurait-il pas parlé ? 69. Cet exercice-ci n'est-il pas bien long ?
48. Thomas ne viendrait-il pas si vous l'envoyiez quérir ? 70. Il est bien long ; mais pas plus long, j'espère, qu'il n'est utile.
49. Tous les faisans et tous les lièvres sont-ils détruits ?
50. Non : mais on en a pris un grand nombre.
51. Je ne vous dis pas de ne point y aller.
52. Je ne vous dis pas de ne point en parler.
53. Ne pas trop parler de soi.
54. Je lui ai dit de ne pas payer

EXERCISE XII.

1. Il fait beau dans ce pays-là, toute l'année, pour ainsi dire. Amérique, l'automne dernier.
2. Il fit bien mauvais temps, en 3. Il pleut presque toujours dans ce pays-là.

4. On dit qu'il ne pleut jamais à Lima.
5. Il y a sept acres de terre et six fort belles maisons.
6. Il y a beaucoup de vase au fond du vivier.
7. Il y a beaucoup d'espèces de pêches.
8. Il y en a plusieurs dans ce jardin.
9. Il y a des boutons à bois et des boutons à fruit.
10. Il y eut dans la ville un cri terrible.
11. Si ce sont des arbres de fruit à noyau que vous avez à tailler.
12. Il y en a là une grande quantité.
13. Il faut l'examiner, et vous assurer s'il y a un bon bourgeon à bois.
14. Veillez à ce qu'il n'y ait pas de terrain perdu et sans récolte.
15. Il ne faut en laisser entrer aucun.
16. On a besoin de beau temps pour la moisson.
17. J'ai besoin d'amis qui m'aident dans une si grande entreprise.
18. Il faut un bon terrain pour récolter de bon blé et élever de bon bétail.
19. Pour produire de bon houblon, il faut beaucoup de fumier et une bonne culture.
20. Il y en avait vingt; il fallait tous les vingt; mais on ne nous en a laissé que sept.
21. C'est une action que nous ne devons jamais oublier.
22. Ce fut son domestique qui le leur dit.
23. Il y eut soixante maisons de renversées par le canon.
24. Il vaut mieux rester comme vous êtes pendant quelques mois.
25. Il vaut beaucoup mieux être pauvre et bien portant, qu'être riche et malade.
26. C'est une mauvaise chose que de voyager quand on ne se porte pas bien.
27. Il est bien pénible de vous quitter dans l'état où vous vous trouvez.
28. C'est un honnête homme. C'est un fripon.
29. Il est honnête. Il est fripon. Elle est bonne et sage.
30. Ce fut votre père qui vous donna ce diamant?
31. Est ce que ce fut eux qui causèrent tant de mal dans le village?
32. Ce furent eux qui coupèrent les arbres et mirent le feu aux maisons.
33. Non: ce fut elle qui ordonna de le faire.
34. Je ne sache pas que ce fût elle qui donna l'ordre.
35. Il y a quarante ans que mon oncle est mort.
36. Il y a plus de vingt ans que je demeure ici.
37. De cette place à celle-là, il y a dix-sept milles.
38. Combien y a-t-il d'ici au sommet de la montagne?
39. Combien serez-vous de temps à revenir?
40. Combien y a-t-il de bœufs dans le parc?
41. Et combien y en a-t-il dans l'étable.
42. Il faut avoir des enfants pour pouvoir sentir pour un père et une mère.
43. N'y a-t-il pas eu un très long débat ce soir?

44. Y en a-t-il jamais eu de plus long?
 45. Il n'y a que cela qui ne soit pas utile.
 46. Y a-t-il des vignes dans ce pays?
 47. Non: il n'y en a point que je sache. Comment! Il n'y en a aucune?
 48. C'est le plus beau pays qu'on ait jamais vu; mais le climat est mauvais.
 49. Il y a environ quatre milles, et je pense que nous pourrons y arriver à neuf heures.
50. Fera-t-il nuit avant que nous y arrivions? Non, car il fait jour maintenant jusqu'après neuf heures.
 51. Il fait bien crotté depuis la dernière pluie, et il paraît qu'il pleuvra de nouveau avant demain soir.
 52. Il a fait un très beau temps aujourd'hui.
 Croyez-vous cela? Y a-t-il quelqu'un qui le croie? Y a-t-il quelqu'un d'eux qui ne méprise celui qui le dit?

EXERCISE XIII.

1. La tour a quatre-cent-quarante pieds de hauteur.
 2. Votre chambre a vingt pieds de long et dix de large.
 3. Un champ carré et une grande barrière.
 4. Un homme impertinent, fou et paresseux.
 5. Un bœuf jeune et beau, et un joli petit chien.
 6. Il est beaucoup plus vieux qu'elle.
 7. Vous n'êtes pas aussi grand que lui de beaucoup.
 8. Ils ont plus de six mille acres de terre.
 9. C'est un très mauvais chapeau; le plus mauvais que j'ai eu de ma vie.
 10. Il fait plus beau aujourd'hui qu'hier; encore fait-il un temps froid et assez triste.
 11. C'est la plus mauvaise route que j'aie jamais vue.
 12. C'est le plus grand coquin qui existe.
 13. Avez-vous beaucoup de bouteilles de vin dans votre cave?
14. Donnez-lui un peu de vin et quelques grappes de raisin.
 15. Je n'ai pas beaucoup d'huile, mais j'ai beaucoup d'olives.
 16. N'a-t-il pas beaucoup de chevaux, et une grande quantité de foin?
 17. Donnez-moi quelques noix, et apportez moi un peu de ce sucre.
 18. Il est aussi zélé pour une bonne, que pour une mauvaise cause.
 19. Soixante mille livres sterling pour une terre et les meubles.
 20. Mil huit-cent-vingt-quatre.
 21. Londres, le 4 Juin, mil huit-cent-vingt-quatre.
 22. George quatre et Charles dix règnent actuellement.
 23. J'aime mieux un ennemi déclaré qu'un ennemi caché.
 24. Vous êtes indigne de tout honneur et de toute distinction.
 25. Il fut transporté de joie en la voyant arriver.
 26. Ils ne méritent point de reproche à cet égard.

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| <p>27 Il est propre à toute espèce d'affaires.</p> <p>28. Il n'y a pas de mal qu'ils ne fassent.</p> <p>29. Votre négligence nous expose à des poursuites judiciaires.</p> <p>30. C'est un homme très estimé dans ce pays-là.</p> <p>31. C'est une Française, c'est un Anglais; c'est une Américaine.</p> <p>32. Un chapeau Français, un habit Anglais, un soulier Américain.</p> | <p>33. Un chapeau noir, un habit bleu, des souliers blancs.</p> <p>34. Blanc comme la neige, noir comme la cheminée, lourd comme du plomb.</p> <p>35. Vous êtes plus grand que lui de deux pouces.</p> <p>36. Je ne crois pas qu'il soit aussi grand qu'elle.</p> <p>37. Ce sont les plus méchants de toute l'espèce humaine.</p> <p>38. C'est de toutes les actions la plus injuste et la plus abominable.</p> |
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EXERCISE XIV.

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| <p>1. Nous voyons tous les jours des choses pareilles à celle-là.</p> <p>2. Ni les menaces, ni l'argent, ne le feront cesser de s'en plaindre.</p> <p>3. Les charpentiers ou les maçons finiront leur ouvrage demain.</p> <p>4. Lui ou elle paiera le diner et le vin.</p> <p>5. Ce furent eux qui dirent qu'elle devait s'en aller.</p> <p>6. Non seulement l'avoine et le foin, mais la paille même a été gâté.</p> <p>7. Jean, Paul, Etienne, Marie et leur mère écriront demain.</p> <p>8. Jean, Paul, Etienne, Marie et vous, vous écrirez demain.</p> <p>9. Votre frère et elle ont beaucoup lu aujourd'hui.</p> <p>10. Mon grand-père et moi nous avons voyagé d'une extrémité du pays à l'autre.</p> <p>11. Les concombres et les melons viennent bien dans cette terre.</p> <p>12. Le jardinier, ainsi que ses gens, aime les fleurs.</p> | <p>13. Il s'en fallait de beaucoup qu'il fût bon, d'après ce que m'a dit le jardinier.</p> <p>14. La pièce de terre où étaient plantés les arbustes.</p> <p>15. La haie où croissaient les épines.</p> <p>16. Les plantations que mon grand-père fit.</p> <p>17. La maison qu'habitent le frère et la sœur.</p> <p>18. Le panier où l'on a mis les fleurs.</p> <p>19. Il y a un mois que le comité tient séance.</p> <p>20. Ils n'auront pas fini de deux mois.</p> <p>21. Le peuple a été fort tranquille.</p> <p>22. Ils ont été extrêmement bien traités.</p> <p>23. Personne ne peut les tromper.</p> <p>24. Le meilleur moyen est toujours de leur dire la vérité.</p> <p>25. Il hait le peuple, et il en dit toujours du mal.</p> <p>26. Je vous donnerai une livre sterling, dit-il, si vous me dites la vérité.</p> |
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27. Ah! dirent-ils, nous vous avons donc attrapé.
28. Non, répondis-je, vous ne m'avez point attrapé.
29. Eh bien! leur dit-il, n'en parlez plus.
30. Partez aussitôt que vous le pourrez, je vous en prie.
31. Nous sommes, elle et moi, les propriétaires de ces bois.
32. Ils désirent leur écrire.
33. Le trèfle et le saintfoin viennent bien dans ce terrain.
34. Ils sont excellents pour toute espèce de bétail.
35. Les betteraves ou les navets sont bons pour les vaches en hiver.
36. On ne vend dans la ville ni paille ni foin.
37. La plus grande partie du monde fait de même.
38. Une grande partie de ses amis le quittèrent.
39. Les plantes curieuses que m'a données mon ami.
40. Le peintre que ma sœur a envoyé. [sœur.
41. Le peintre qui a envoyé ma
42. L'imprimeur que le peuple aime tant. [peuple.
43. L'imprimeur qui aime tant le
44. Je plante de la laitue et du céleri.
45. Donnez-moi un peu de l'un et de l'autre, s'il vous plaît.

EXERCISE XV.

1. Le guide qui conduisait l'observateur duquel je tiens la description, lui rapporta que, quelque temps avant la guerre qui se termina par la paix de Ryswick, ayant mené les Allemands à cet endroit, ils le trouvèrent couvert de neige.
2. Le palais était un temple dédié aux dieux tutélaires. Il était de forme oblongue, et avait huit colonnes de chaque côté, en longueur, et quatre le long de chaque extrémité; ce qui faisait en tout vingt-quatre colonnes, dont huit subsistèrent jusqu'au moment où on les abattit pour agrandir le château.
3. La fontaine qu'on nomme d'Audège, jette une si grande quantité d'eau, qu'elle forme un ruisseau très utile aux tanneurs qui demeurent dans les faubourgs.
- Étudiez-vous bien, et ne négligez-vous aucune partie de votre devoir?
- Lorsqu'il aura fini de bâtir sa maison, il ira à la campagne.
- Quand elle ira à la ville, elle y trouvera un grand nombre d'amis qui seront bien aises de la voir.
- Tout ce qu'on peut faire pour lui, on le doit faire.
- Il a été fort maltraité par ceux qui lui devaient beaucoup.
- Elle était très-malade et souffrait excessivement. Ils firent tout ce qu'ils purent pour la soulager.
- Il a été à l'église.
- Elle tomba du haut de la maison.
- Ils s'en allèrent l'année dernière.

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| 13. Nous n'avons pas été au spectacle. | 16. Ils se lèvent de bon matin. |
| 14. Il alla se coucher hier-soir à dix heures. | 17. Nous nous levions, tous les jours, à quatre heures. |
| 15. Il s'était couché de meilleure heure. | 18. Vous devriez vous lever de meilleure heure que vous ne le faites. |

EXERCISE XVI.

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| 1. Elle n'est point assez riche pour vivre sans travailler. | 16. Ils se réjoignent beaucoup de ce que vous avez triomphé de vos ennemis. |
| 2. Il fit cela pour provoquer ses frères et ses sœurs. | 17. En allant à Londres, vous gagnez beaucoup. |
| 3. Il seront trop sages pour empêcher qu'on ne cultive la terre. | 18. En veillant à vos affaires, vous vous rendez heureux, ainsi que vos parents. |
| 4. Que mérite-t-il pour avoir livré son pays à son plus mortel ennemi? | 19. Je désire de tout mon cœur que vous le fassiez. |
| 5. Des milliers d'aventuriers ont fait leur fortune en venant ici. | 20. Je ne connais rien de plus heureux que cela. |
| 6. Ce n'est pas être sage que de bâtir une maison sur un terrain si stérile. | 21. Il vaut mieux qu'un pays soit détruit, que d'être gouverné par des méchants. |
| 7. Étudiez sans cesse, si vous êtes en bonne santé. | 22. Il valait mieux qu'il allât à cheval qu'en voiture. |
| 8. Donnez aux pauvres plutôt que de les dépanner. | 23. Il importe beaucoup qu'ils se déclarent formellement. |
| 9. Quelque peu de moyens qu'elle ait, elle n'en fait pas moins jolie figure. | 24. Je ne crois pas qu'il fasse beau demain. |
| 10. C'est à vous à leur parler d'une affaire qui vous concerne. | 25. Si le beau temps commence et continue pendant quelques jours. |
| 11. Il convient que vous preniez des mesures efficaces pour le punir. | 26. C'est le plus grand coquin qui soit au monde. |
| 12. Il est excessivement adonné au vice honteux du jeu. | 27. Il s'est sauvé la vie en venant en Angleterre. |
| 13. Je suis las de vivre ici et de ne rien faire. | 28. Il est très agréable d'aller en France pendant l'été. |
| 14. Allez dire à mon homme d'affaires de venir le plus tôt qu'il pourra. | 29. Faucher on moissonner est un ouvrage pénible. |
| 15. Allez vous informer de notre voisin qui était si malade l'autre jour. | 30. Il ne vous sied point d'être si délicat sur cet article. |
| | 31. Quoi qu'ils en disent, c'est une mauvaise affaire. |
| | 32. Je ne connais rien qui irrite plus que cela. |

33. Peu de choses sont plus déshonorantes que le mensonge.
34. Boire à l'excès rend un homme méprisable.
35. Manger, boire, et dormir sont des choses nécessaires.
36. Je suis fort fâché que votre frère ne soit pas venu.
37. Pourquoi ne viendrait-il pas la semaine prochaine?
38. Il paraît qu'ils sont partis de très bonne heure.
39. Est-il bien certain que la ville soit prise?
40. Il est bien certain que la ville est prise.
41. Il est clair comme le jour que ce malheur arrivera.
42. Il n'est pas bien certain que ce malheur arrive.
43. Il était évident qu'il ne pouvait se défendre lui-même.
44. Il n'était pas certain qu'il ne pût se défendre lui-même.
45. Il me semble que vous avez tort.
46. Il semble qu'il a tort.
47. Il n'est ni juste ni convenable qu'il le fasse.
48. Croyez-vous venir Samedi prochain?
49. Plût-à-Dieu qu'il se portât bien!
50. Si vous perdiez votre fortune, il faudrait vous en aller.
51. Dieu veuille qu'elle recouvre la santé!
52. Vous dites qu'elle se rétablira; Dieu la veuille!
53. J'espère qu'elle ne mourra pas. Dieu l'en préserve!
54. A Dieu ne plaise que je fasse pareille chose!
55. Quoi! nous leur pardonnerions cette faute?
56. Que voulez-vous que je fasse?
57. Je veux que vous vous leviez de bonne heure, et que vous soyez laborieux.
- J'ai besoin d'une bonne scie; pensez-vous que j'en trouve une?
59. Je crois que vous n'en trouverez pas dans le village.
60. Je ne doute pas que vous n'en trouviez dans la ville.
61. Il faudra qu'ils se donnent bien des soins pour le supprimer.
62. Je n'en doute nullement, je l'avoue.
63. Je doute qu'il le fasse.
64. Je doute qu'il ne le fasse pas.
65. Je ne crois pas qu'elle vienne la semaine prochaine.
66. Le mal vient de ce qu'il leur a parlé.
67. Leur babillage a mis leur maître en colère.
68. Le ramage des oiseaux est ravissant.
69. Ce que j'aime le plus dans les oiseaux, c'est leur ramage.
70. Quoiqu'il vende sa terre, il ne sera pas ruiné.
71. Il fut tué dans la dernière guerre.
72. Les tentes ont été prises par l'ennemi.
73. Les tentes que l'ennemi a prises.
74. Quelles tentes a-t-il prises?
75. Il a pris toutes les tentes que nous avions.
76. Je suis surpris que vous l'ayez fait.
77. Ils écrivent dans ma chambre.
78. Vous avez perdu votre argent pour ne l'avoir pas demandé.
79. Il est très indécent de se conduire de la sorte.

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| 80. Mon père cherche une grande et belle ferme. | 88. Je suis loin de dire ou de penser qu'elle mourra. |
| 81. Ils sont fort en colère de ce que vous ayez pu le faire. | 89. Le voici qui vient pour s'informer de votre santé. |
| 82. Ils insistent absolument à ce qu'elle ne reste pas plus longtemps. | 90. Voici mon fouet: voici le vôtre: voilà le leur. |
| 83. Nous fûmes tous très surpris. | 91. Croyez-vous que je vous donne pour rien ma maison et mes meubles? |
| 84. Il y a quatre hommes qui plantent des arbres. | 92. Le blé s'est vendu dans le marché. |
| 85. Je vois les lévriers qui courent après le lièvre. | 93. Les pommes lui furent vendues. |
| 86. Apportez-nous du café qui soit bon et chaud. | 94. Les bœufs furent vendus la semaine passée. |
| 87. Ayons un gigot de mouton gros et gras. | 95. Les vaches ont été vendues cette semaine. |

EXERCISE XVII.

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| 1. Maintenant, je vais vous donner le dix-septième exercice. | 12. Nous vendrons notre blé et notre vin, et ils vendront les leurs. |
| 2. Sera-t-il long ou court? | 13. Ils auront tout ce que je ne dois point garder. |
| 3. Si je trouvais votre fils, je l'enverrais à la maison. | 14. Je veux bien que vous restiez ici. |
| 4. Il ferait promptement fortune s'il pouvait exploiter les mines. | 15. Mais je ne peux vous donner à manger et à boire. |
| 5. Feriez-vous bientôt fortune, si vous parveniez à les exploiter? | 16. Cela peut-il être? Que me peut-il vouloir? |
| 6. Je ne peux monter ce mauvais cheval sans m'exposer à me casser le cou. | 17. Que nous veulent-ils? |
| 7. Vous et lui vous pourriez prendre cette liberté; mais elle ne saurait le faire. | 18. Se peut-il qu'ils aient besoin de notre argent. |
| 8. Elle ne doit pas le faire sous quelque rapport que ce soit. | 19. Se peut-il qu'il y ait d'aussi méchantes gens dans le monde? |
| 9. Vous devriez lui donner cette ferme. | 20. Désiraient-ils voir la ville en feu? |
| 10. S'il pouvait la leur donner il le ferait. | 21. Voulez-vous des haricots ou des pois? |
| 11. Il s'en ira d'ici, et son frère aussi. | 22. Je n'ai besoin ni des uns ni des autres. |
| | 23. Que voulez-vous donc? |
| | 24. Aura-t-elle des fleurs? |
| | 25. Vent-elle de celles que j'ai semées. |

- | | |
|---|--|
| 26. Plût à Dieu qu'ils se levas-
sent de bonne heure! | 38. Feraï-je un nœud à la ficelle? |
| 27. A Dieu ne plaise que j'aie un
tas de dormeurs dans ma
maison! | 39. Il serait vraiment affligé s'il
perdait sa cause. |
| 28. Dût-il m'en coûter la vie. | 40. Ce livre de rait contenir 400
feuilles. |
| 29. N'aurait-il pas pu lui de-
mander ce qu'elle voulait
dire? | 41. Vous devriez cueillir des fleurs. |
| 30. Il aurait pu le faire; mais
elle aurait pu lui refuser de
répondre. | 42. Ils seront en deuil la semaine
prochaine. |
| 31. Ne devriez-vous pas le forcer
de répondre? | 43. Son œil sera bientôt guéri. |
| 32. Pourrait-on trouver une route
comparable à celle-là? | 44. Je voudrais qu'ils vinsent de
suite. |
| 33. N'y a-t-il point ici un grand
nombre de questions? | 45. Il pourrait s'en aller s'il vou-
lait. |
| 34. Pouvez-vous en trouver davan-
tage dans un même espace,
dans un livre quelconque? | 46. Qu'ils viennent quand il leur
plaira. |
| 35. Peuvent-ils être en colère con-
tre moi? | 47. Il devait partir pour Paris la
semaine dernière. |
| 36. Y aura-t-il des œufs pour sou-
per? | 48. Vous devriez leur dire ce que
vous en pensez. |
| 37. Mes yeux s'obscurciront. | 49. Il peut se faire qu'ils s'en
aillent. |
| | 50. Il peut se faire qu'ils ne sa-
chent pas écrire. |
| | 51. Peut-elle venir? Cela peut
être, <i>or</i> , cela est possible. |
| | 52. Vous ne devriez pas le prendre. |

EXERCISE XVIII.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Ils l'ignorent pour l'instant. | 12. Nous écrirons demain ou après
demain. |
| 2. Ils ne montent plus à cheval
maintenant. | 13. Il ira bientôt voir son père. |
| 3. C'est la mode maintenant d'al-
ler à pied. | 14. L'affaire se terminera la se-
maine prochaine. |
| 4. Je vais le faire tout de suite. | 15. Où ont-ils été pendant tout ce
temps? |
| 5. Elle vint hier et avant-hier. | 16. Donnez-leur à manger de
temps en temps. |
| 6. Il y avait jadis des aubres
dans ce champ. | 17. D'où vient tout ce monde? |
| 7. Ils me le dirent auparavant. | 18. Pourquoi viennent-ils tous ici? |
| 8. Il faut que vous veniez ici de-
main. | 19. Qui les engage à passer par ici? |
| 9. Je vous prie de m'écrire
bientôt. | 20. Il leur est plus facile d'aller
par là. |
| 10. Je mange souvent des cerises
et des pommes. | 21. Ils partent d'ici, chaque jour,
à une heure. |
| 11. Ils finiront bientôt leur ou-
vrage. | 22. Quand vous monterez, vous
remonterez le haut. |

- | | |
|--|---|
| 23. On ne peut le trouver nulle part. | 28. On la prit de force. |
| 24. Il y a trop d'eau dans votre vin. | 29. Cela est bien méchant de leur part. |
| 25. Peut-être le verrez-vous tantôt. | 30. Vous parlez à tort et à travers. |
| 26. Ils l'ont dit en plaisantant; mais ce n'est que trop vrai. | 31. Combien de fois y avez-vous été? |
| 27. Ils écrivent et lisent sans | 32. Quelle distance y a-t-il d'ici au champ de froment? |
| | 33. Je sais bien ce que vous voulez dire. |

EXERCISE XIX.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Avez-vous pensé à l'affaire dont je vous ai parlé? | 5. Ils se battirent à la baïonnette et à l'épée. |
| 2. Oui; mais je ne sais que faire à ce sujet. | 6. Vous jouissez de vos richesses. |
| 3. A qui appartient ce livre? Il appartient à Jean, ou à sa sœur. | 7. Ils demeurent près de votre maison de campagne. |
| 4. Il faut que la maison soit bâtie d'ici à la Noël. | 8. Vous devriez obéir à votre maître. |

EXERCISE XX.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Que vous le fassiez ou non, je viendrai. | 6. Quand vous écrirez, faites-le moi savoir. |
| 2. Un grand bâtiment ou de brique ou de pierre. | 7. Quand ils viendront, ils resteront long-temps. |
| 3. Il les loua par amour ou par crainte. | 8. Si vous désirez vous en aller, et être de retour à temps. |
| 4. Que deviendrions-nous s'ils venaient à mourir? | 9. S'ils le veulent, et qu'ils le paient. |
| 5. Que diriez-vous s'ils y consentaient? | 10. S'il donnait même toute sa fortune. |

CARDINAL AND ORDINAL NUMBERS.

I.—THOSE OF CARDINAL NUMBER.

One of these only, namely, the word *un, une*, undergoes any change, and that is to express the feminine of *un*. They are as follows:—

1. One,	<i>Un, une.</i>
2. Two,	<i>Deux.</i>
3. Three,	<i>Trois.</i>
4. Four,	<i>Quatre.</i>
5. Five,	<i>Cinq.</i>
6. Six,	<i>Six.</i>
7. Seven,	<i>Sept.</i>
8. Eight,	<i>Huit.</i>
9. Nine,	<i>Neuf.</i>
10. Ten,	<i>Dix.</i>
11. Eleven,	<i>Onze.</i>
12. Twelve,	<i>Douze.</i>
13. Thirteen,	<i>Treize.</i>
14. Fourteen,	<i>Quatorze.</i>
15. Fifteen,	<i>Quinze.</i>
16. Sixteen,	<i>Seize.</i>
17. Seventeen,	<i>Dix-sept.</i>
18. Eighteen,	<i>Dix-huit.</i>
19. Nineteen,	<i>Dix-neuf.</i>
20. Twenty,	<i>Vingt.</i>
21. Twenty-one.	<i>Vingt et un.</i>
22. Twenty-two,	<i>Vingt-deux.</i>
23. Twenty-three,	<i>Vingt-trois.</i>
24. Twenty-four,	<i>Vingt-quatre.</i>
25. Twenty-five,	<i>Vingt-cinq.</i>
26. Twenty-six,	<i>Vingt-six.</i>
27. Twenty-seven,	<i>Vingt-sept.</i>
28. Twenty-eight,	<i>Vingt-huit.</i>
29. Twenty-nine,	<i>Vingt-neuf.</i>
30. Thirty,	<i>Trente.</i>
31. Thirty-one,	<i>Trente et un.</i>
32. Thirty-two,	<i>Trente-deux.</i>
40. Forty,	<i>Quarante.</i>
41. Forty-one.	<i>Quarante et un.</i>

50. Fifty,	<i>Cinquante.</i>
60. Sixty,	<i>Soixante.</i>
70. Seventy,	<i>Soixante et dix.</i>
80. Eighty,	<i>Quatre-vingt.</i>
90. Ninety,	<i>Quatre-vingt-dix</i>
100. A hundred,	<i>Cent.</i>
101. A hundred and one,	<i>Cent-et-un.</i>
120. A hundred and } twenty, }	<i>Cent-vingt.</i>
121. A hundred and } twenty-one, }	<i>Cent-vingt et un.</i>
200. Two hundred,	<i>Deux cents.</i>
1,000. A thousand,	<i>Mille.</i>
2,000. Two thousand,	<i>Deux mille.</i>
1,000,000. A million,	<i>Un million.</i>

II.—THOSE OF NUMERICAL ORDER.

Of these the two first on the list are subject to change. *Le premier*, to express gender and number, changes to *la première, les premiers, les premières*. *Le second*, to express the feminine, changes to *la seconde*.

1st. The first,	<i>Le premier.</i>
2d. The second,	<i>Le second, or le deuxième.</i>
3d. The third,	<i>Le troisième.</i>
4th. The fourth,	<i>Le quatrième.</i>
5th. The fifth,	<i>Le cinquième.</i>
6th. The sixth,	<i>Le sixième.</i>
7th. The seventh,	<i>Le septième.</i>
8th. The eighth,	<i>Le huitième.</i>
9th. The ninth,	<i>Le neuvième.</i>
10th. The tenth,	<i>Le dixième.</i>
11th. The eleventh,	<i>Le onzième.</i>
12th. The twelfth,	<i>Le douzième.</i>
13th. The thirteenth,	<i>Le treizième.</i>
14th. The fourteenth,	<i>Le quatorzième.</i>
15th. The fifteenth,	<i>Le quinzième.</i>
16th. The sixteenth,	<i>Le seizième.</i>
17th. The seventeenth,	<i>Le dix-septième.</i>
18th. The eighteenth,	<i>Le dix-huitième.</i>
19th. The nineteenth,	<i>Le dix-neuvième.</i>

20th.	The twentieth,	<i>Le vingtième.</i>
21st.	The twenty-first,	<i>Le vingt et unième.</i>
22d.	The twenty-second,	<i>Le vingt-deuxième.</i>
30th.	The thirtieth,	<i>Le trentième.</i>
40th.	The fortieth,	<i>Le quarantième.</i>
50th.	The fiftieth,	<i>Le cinquantième.</i>
60th.	The sixtieth,	<i>Le soixantième.</i>
70th.	The seventieth,	<i>Le soixante et dixième.</i>
80th.	The eightieth,	<i>Le quatre-vingtième.</i>
90th.	The ninetieth,	<i>Le quatre-vingt-dixième.</i>
100th.	The hundredth,	<i>Le centième.</i>
150th.	The hundred and } fiftieth,	<i>Le cent-cinquantième.</i>
200th.	The two hundredth,	<i>Le deux-centième</i>
1,000th.	The thousandth,	<i>Le millièmè.</i>

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